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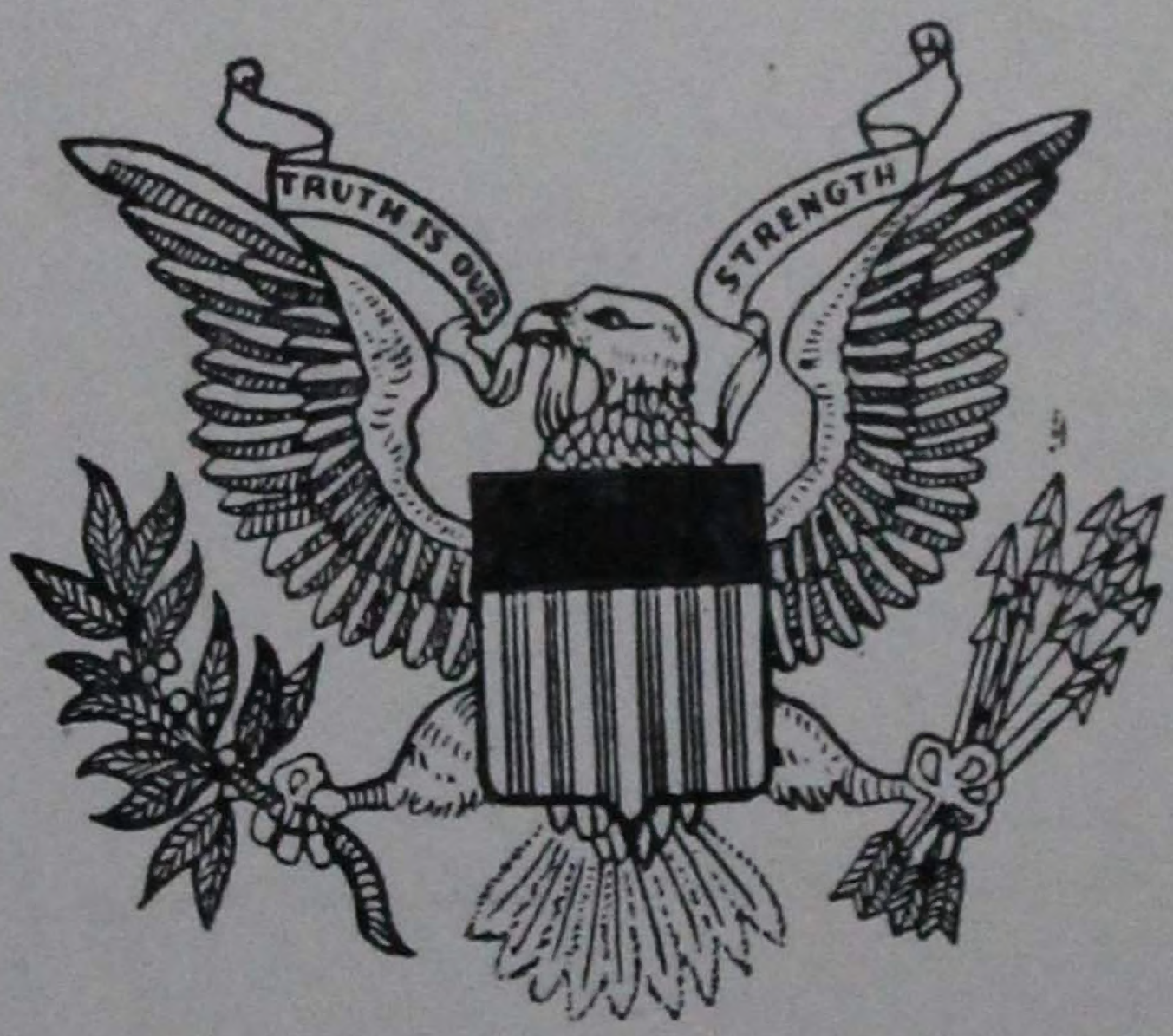


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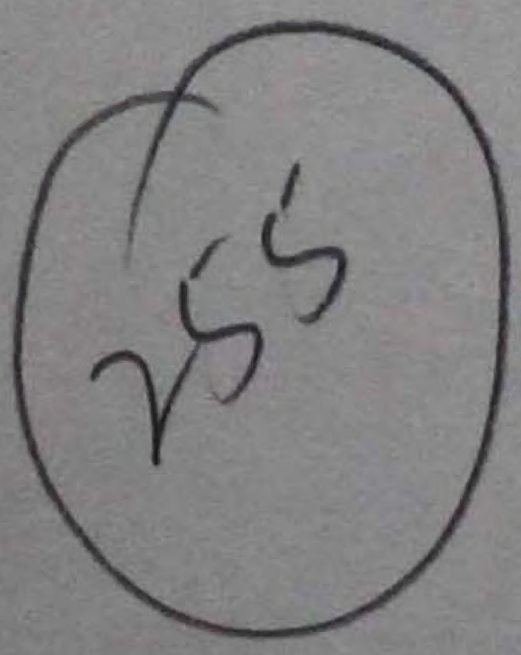

McGRAW-HILL SERIES IN EDUCATION

HAROLD BENJAMIN, *Consulting Editor*

# THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

The Original and Complete Study of Education for the Hoover Commission Task Force on Public Welfare

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# THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

*The Original and Complete Study of Education for the Hoover Commission Task Force on Public Welfare*

BY

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*Claremont, California*

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# PREFACE

This book is the full text of a report prepared at the Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C., in a study of federal policy and organization for education. A briefed version of these materials was utilized as the Task Force Report on Education to the Hoover Commission. The issues and problems involved, however, are believed to be of sufficient import and concern to warrant the publication of all the evidence from which the Task Force report was prepared. Education, particularly in our form of society, is such a vital force for individual and social betterment that these materials will be of concern to thoughtful laymen as well as to professional educators. Taking the point of view, as this book does, that federal activities in education must be judged in terms of their long-range effect on state and local school systems and upon our colleges and universities individually and collectively, this volume will be of import to those interested in all levels of education and all echelons of government.

For several decades there has been a sincerely expressed desire on the part of our leading citizens that federal activities in the field of education be organized in terms of a well-thought-out federal policy for education. Both official government commissions and non-governmental groups have expressed their hopes and recommendations in many volumes which have been made available to the American people. These reports have seldom resulted in any action by Congress to correct the many situations which have been pointed out as either actually or potentially inimical to the best interest of education and of people being educated.

With the appointment of the Commission on the Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, by unanimous action of Congress in July of 1947, there was hope that the time had arrived when educational policies and activities of the federal

government might be put in order. The Commission was made up of twelve leading citizens of the country. It was bipartisan in nature. All areas of the Executive Branch were to be studied. The Congressional Act * setting up the Commission defined its activities to include several areas in which educators had felt the need for relief. This Act declared its purpose thus:

> . . . to promote economy, efficiency, and improve service . . . by
> (1) limiting expenditures to the lowest amount consistent with the efficient performance of essential services, activities, and functions;
> (2) eliminating duplication and overlapping of services, activities, and functions;
> (3) consolidating services, activities, and functions of a similar nature;
> (4) abolishing services, activities, and functions not necessary to the efficient conduct of government; and
> (5) defining and limiting executive functions, services, and activities.

The Commission, popularly known as the "Hoover Commission" since former President Herbert Hoover was selected as its Chairman, made its basic studies through twenty-three task forces, each one working in a specific area of federal government activity. Some of these task forces made vertical studies, such as those for departments of the Post Office, Agriculture, or Interior. Others made horizontal studies in areas which cross into many departments or agencies of the government, such as in Federal-State Relations, Federal Research Activities, Medical Services, or Welfare. Education was included in the latter category. The Brookings Institution, a well-known private organization devoted primarily to governmental and economic research, was granted the contract for making the basic task-force studies in transportation and welfare. The author was employed by the Brookings Institution, and his release from his collegiate activities for this project was made on Mr. Hoover's personal request. The members of the Brookings staff who were working on the various aspects of the larger area of welfare for the Commission acted

* P. L. 162, Eightieth Congress, 1st Session.

as a "sounding board" for ideas and interpretation of data.

Early in its activities, the Commission announced its desire that task forces avoid any criticism of being "ivory towered" in developing their reports and studies by seeking advice and suggestions from all possible informed and interested individuals and groups both inside and outside the government. Several hundred individuals and organizations were consulted in connection with the study of education. With the cooperation and hearty support of the Bureau of the Budget, all federal accounts were searched for educational programs. Each federal department or independent agency was given an opportunity to present data and recommendations concerning any educational programs with which it was concerned, and most agencies availed themselves of this opportunity. Organizations and individuals outside the government were asked to submit pertinent materials and points of view.

As a result of these investigations, the materials of this volume were collected. As stated above, this constitutes the complete manuscript from which a briefed version was submitted as the Task Force Report on Education to the Hoover Commission. The latter has been published in Appendix P to the Commission Report.* Part 1 of this Appendix is also of interest to those concerned with the basic governmental organization for education. It discusses the question of a federal department for welfare functions as compared with the alternative of several unifunctional agencies (independent agencies), assuming that in the latter case adequate coordination between agencies could be effected by the Office of the President. In referring to education, this section of the report states (page 10):

> Perhaps the experiment most worthy trying would be to make the United States Office of Education an independent establishment with an advisory board constituted as is proposed in the part of the present report which deals with education.

* The Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *Task Force Report on Public Welfare* (*Appendix P*); Part Three, pages 277 to 378 and 553 to 590; Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., January, 1949.

In addition to the task force report which appears in Appendix P, the Commission has published its own recommendations to the Congress concerning education in a brief volume entitled *Social Security and Education—Indian Affairs.*° Because of the marked deviations between recommendations of the Commission and those of the task force which dealt with education, it is believed appropriate to present a brief review of the Commission Report.

The Commission recommended the creation of a new Department of Social Security and Education, headed by a secretary with Cabinet status, to encompass most of the functions now residing in the Federal Security Agency, including the Office of Education and adding Indian Affairs. Part Three of the Commission report on *Social Security and Education—Indian Affairs* is the only portion devoted solely to education. Because of its brevity it is quoted in full:

### V. Federal Participation in Education Generally

Total Federal funds expended for all educational purposes, including education of veterans, are at present at an all time high of $2.5 billion.†

The major purposes of these expenditures may be classified as follows:

a. Federal activities concerning all levels of education—such as education of veterans, institutional on-farm training, vocational and physical rehabilitation, and education in nonmilitary subjects within the military establishment—over $2 billion.

b. Federal activities clearly related to elementary and secondary education—$166 million.

c. Federal activities clearly related to higher education—$257 million.

In addition, the Federal Government has rendered considerable

° The Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *Social Security and Education—Indian Affairs;* A Report to Congress; Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., March, 1949.

† Author's note: On page 290 under these covers the figures of $3.4 billions will be noted. It is believed that this is a more accurate figure. Totals presented in immediately following paragraphs are similarly subject to question.

assistance to education in nonbudgetary items, particularly since the recent war. For example, during approximately two years prior to May 1948, surplus property initially valued at $646,663,358 was made available to educational institutions by the War Assets Administration, Army, Navy, and Air Force, with the cooperation of the Office of Education.

With few exceptions, the Federal interest in education centers on special groups of individuals, special programs sponsored by the Federal Government, or on research and training to promote some special Federal concern such as national defense or in-service training of Federal employees. The variety of Federal activities in education is indicated by the following:

a. At elementary and secondary levels:
   I. Promotion of curricula.
   II. School lunch program.
   III. Education for dependent children of Federal employees.
   IV. Education of Indians and other native people.

b. At the level of higher education:
   I. Research grants to colleges and universities.
   II. Higher education of special groups of individuals, or individuals in special fields (Howard University, public health training, extension service of the Department of Agriculture).
   III. Special types of State higher institutions such as land-grant colleges and State Maritime academies.
   IV. International education programs.
   V. Education and training for public service.

c. Activities not specialized:
   I. Veterans.
   II. On-farm training.
   III. Vocational and physical rehabilitation.
   IV. Education in nonmilitary subjects within the military establishment.

d. Activities not connected with established educational institutions such as in-service training for government service, or programs for non-Federal employees.

e. Nonbudgetary Federal assistance through surplus property.

With respect to elementary and secondary educational activities, there has been overlapping and independent promotion of curricula in highly specialized fields, while the general curricular needs of the country have been neglected. Direct aid to local schools, with respect to curriculum development and the school lunch program, has circumvented State departments of education. There has not been sufficient coordination of the educational and nutritional aspects of the school lunch program. As regards its responsibility for the education of children of Federal employees on federally owned properties, the Federal Government does not have a consistent and comprehensive policy. There is no common policy for the education of Indians, Eskimos, and other native peoples living in our insular and mandated territories, since this responsibility is dispersed among a number of agencies of Government.

Concerning higher education, nine departments and agencies are making grants or entering into contracts for research through colleges and universities without any coordination of these programs. (See our report on Federal Research.) For years the Government has made payments for agricultural research. More recently the Government has been spending huge sums in grants to higher institutions for atomic and military research. These projects are concentrated in the natural and physical sciences. The grants have an important effect on the educational system.

There are those who believe that these various educational programs should be concentrated in the Office of Education.

*Recommendation No. 7*

This Commission believes, however, that these educational programs must be administered by the agencies whose functions the particular programs serve to promote.

## VI. Educational Activities in the New Department

The new department, however, should analyze the effects of expenditures and programs relating to education and assist the President in making recommendations to the Congress for correction of deficiencies. In addition, the Department would, of course, continue to perform the historic functions of the Office of Education as follows:

a. To collect data on the condition and progress of education and to serve as a source of general information on the subject.

b. To administer certain operating functions vested in that agency by the Congress.

c. To render professional advice and service to other Government agencies.

Still other publications of the Commission must be considered if one is to gain a complete picture of its findings and recommendations as they concern education. For instance, in the *Task Force Report on Agriculture Activities* (Appendix M) the following, which parallels a recommendation in the Task Force Report on Education, will be noted (page 83):

> The only justification for federally supported school lunch program is to provide adequate food for children and to establish health-building dietary habits that future generations may be strong. The committee, therefore, recommends that responsibility for school lunches be with the Federal agency that will include educational responsibilities, but that avenues be maintained for cooperation with the Department of Agriculture for the disposal of abundant food products which may effectively supplement an accepted dietary program. . . .

Similarly, on page 80 of the Agriculture Task Force Report, mention is made of the need for coordination between the 4–H Clubs of the Agriculture Extension Service and the Future Farmers and Future Homemakers youth organizations sponsored by the Office of Education. In spite of agreement between the task forces in education and in agriculture on these two important matters, the Commission has preferred to ignore the task force recommendations.

The chapters which follow under these covers will take the point of view that organizational decisions as they concern education can be made properly only in the light of good educational and public policy. Education has such a high position of priority as a means for individual and public benefit—or if improperly used, as a detriment—that it has been considered essential to treat policy as a prerequisite to organization. Possibly some of the discrepancies between the Commission recommendations as they appear above and those which appear within this book may be due to the unwillingness of the Commission to consider questions

of policy as related to education. On page 4 of the Commission *Report on Social Security and Education–Indian Affairs,* the Commission states:

> It is not the province of this Commission to pass upon the policies that have evolved in these matters.

Again, on page 12 of the same report, it is stated that:

> . . . we again emphasize that this Commission is not dealing with the policies of the Congress in these agencies, but purely with organizational questions.

In contrast, it is of interest to note that in the above quoted report of the Commission, when taking up the matter of organization of Indian Affairs, the discussion starts with policy and the Commission's first recommendation advocates progressive measures to integrate the Indians into the rest of the population.

> . . . In the opinion of the Commission this policy should be the keystone of the organization and of the activities of the Federal Government in the field of Indian Affairs.

Certainly most of the difficulties regarding federal educational programs and organization stem from our failure to recognize that a properly developed policy should be the keystone to the organization of its educational activities. If important in Indian affairs, it is immensely more important in educational affairs. By avoiding the issue of policy, we merely perpetuate current bad practices and invite dangers in the future.

This book follows closely the text of the basic report developed at Brookings Institution from which the Task Force Report on Education was digested. Only those changes have been made which will make it appropriately a report to the American people rather than a report of concern to a government commission. The reader is cautioned that the subjects dealt with are dynamic rather than static—that statistics and facts reported for the fiscal year of 1949 may be far different than those of 1950 or later years—that good policy of 1949 may not necessarily meet the needs of 1959. It is hoped, however, that this book will focus attention on a

number of problems which may, at their roots, have a marked bearing on the welfare of educational institutions, and through them, on the welfare of every individual of the country.

In making this study of the educational activities of the federal government much credit is due to those who have contributed the basic data. Particularly should the staff of the Bureau of the Budget be commended for the painstaking search which has been made for these activities and associated descriptive materials. In response to letters to dozens of educational organizations and individuals interested in the problems involved, many helpful suggestions have been made. Letters were addressed to presidents of forty representative colleges and universities, and the thirty-two replies have given much help in understanding the impact of federal activities on higher educational institutions. Requests to the various departments and independent agencies of the government for descriptive materials and suggestions concerning their educational programs resulted in letters and reports which have been of much assistance. Various members of the staff of the United States Office of Education have been very cooperative in locating information and in compiling data. The generosity of many individuals, both inside and outside the government, in time-consuming conferences has been appreciated. It is unfortunate that all of the information obtained from these various sources could not be incorporated into this study. Special credit is due to Janet D. Allen, who has assisted ably in the various aspects of the study, as well as to John Edgerton, who acted as research assistant in its earlier stages. To the staff of the Brookings Institution, particularly Margaret Maltby, its Librarian, and Dr. Lewis Meriam, its Vice President and coordinator of the Task Force on Welfare, much appreciation is due for services which have made this book possible.

HOLLIS P. ALLEN

CLAREMONT, CALIF.
*January*, 1950

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# *Chapter 1.* INTRODUCTION

The emphasis given to education in the United States stems from our basic belief in the worth of the individual and that the state exists for the individual rather than the individual for the state. In our concern for the continuation and further development of the democratic process, we are firmly committed to the principle that the development of individual intellect and understanding is essential. If government is to be by the people, the people must have insight. If government is to be for the people, it must provide the facilities for attaining that insight. These principles were basic in the thinking of the founders of our government and have since that time been accepted as almost axiomatic by the people of our nation.

To implement these principles the American people have evolved a system of schools—elementary, secondary, and higher institutions—which now make educational opportunities available to the general populace on a scale unknown elsewhere in the world. This program has been largely initiated and developed through local energy and vision on the state and community levels, by both public and private enterprise. The earlier prevalence of private educational institutions has given way in the last century to the more pronounced and democratizing influence of public education. Although we have developed a strong tradition of state and local control and support of education, the cultural ties within the country have been sufficiently strong to develop a truly national type of education, yet relatively unhampered by national controls.

The American tradition for local control of education was a logical outgrowth of the isolation of the early pioneer community. With the passing of the frontier the tradition still exists, supported

by Constitution, by law, and possibly even more important by the basic belief of our people that the local community and the state must be the cornerstone for those matters which concern the welfare of the individual and his participation in our democratic society. This tradition has been further heightened by our zeal for freedom and individual liberty, a zeal sufficiently strong to have been the basic cause of our three major wars with foreign powers. We not only have a compelling desire for decentralization in matters which concern influence and control of the thinking of an individual; we have a deep-rooted abhorrence of anything which savors of a centralized or totalitarian control of thinking through education. Among the varied and numerous activities of government, there is probably none which is guarded more from federal controls than education. We believe that the decentralization of administration and control of public education should be maintained.

The following is quoted from a *Public Affairs Bulletin:*

> In his well-known "study and interpretation of American educational history" Cubberley has pointed out that "the school everywhere in America arose as a child of the Church." J. F. Messenger, in his work in the same field, has reminded the reader that at the time of the framing of the Constitution education was generally regarded as a matter of church control. But in America there were many churches and no established state church. Which church then should be recognized by the Constitution as in control of education? Obviously no one could be so recognized. Religious freedom implied educational freedom. The only way to obtain a constitution which could be agreed upon by all was to omit education and sectarianism. Even as late as 1825, Cubberley states, publicly-controlled, non-sectarian schools were "the distant hope of statesmen and reformers." [1]

The federal government has only the powers which are delegated to it in the Constitution. The Tenth Amendment affirms that "powers not delegated to the United States . . . are reserved

[1] Public Affairs Bulletin No. 30, *High Lights in the Development of Federal Policies and Activities in Education,* The Library of Congress Legislative Reference Service, April 1944, p. 10.

to the States respectively, or to the people." Education is not among the powers expressly delegated to the United States, and therefore falls within the provision of the Tenth Amendment.

## I. Brief Review of the Evolution of Federal Concern for and Participation in Education

From the foregoing it may perhaps seem somewhat anomalous that the federal government from its inception has evidenced an interest in and a support of public education in all states. Most of the states were first organized as territories in all of which Congress provided for public school systems. Thus the majority of our state school systems were initiated by the federal government. Starting in 1785 with grants of federal land for public education in the Northwest Territory, the land grant program has since then aided all levels of education in the states and Alaska by federal grants of probably over 165,000,000 acres.

While the early land grants were for the general support of education, the Morrill Act of 1862, giving lands for state agricultural and mechanical colleges, specified broad areas of curricula, a mild type of federal control by persuasion.

Since 1862 the increasing federal concern for and support of education, in co-operation with the states, is evidenced by federal subsidies for such activities as agricultural experiment stations (1887); resident instruction in land grant colleges (1890); agricultural extension service (1914); vocational education in secondary schools (1917); vocational rehabilitation (1920); and the school lunch program (regularized in 1946). Subsequent added subsidies for these projects have been made from time to time.

It will be noted that each of these co-operative projects is in a very specific area of education. There are those who believe that, both because of their specificity and the federal controls which in varying degree accompany them, these constitute a threat to state and local autonomy. Suffice it to state that, for the most part, these specific educational projects carried out by the states with federal encouragement have been in response to

defensible needs in areas of education not adequately cared for by local initiative. Some, with modest federal subsidies, have produced excellent participation in states. An added question may be raised, aside from the question of control, concerning the wisdom of federal support of specific types of educational service to the states which may tend to place education in a state of imbalance, and without regard to priority of local needs.

It would be improper to conclude that the federal interest in education stops at co-operation with the states. In fact, by far the greater part of the federal budgetary items concerning education are in other areas, or through other than state channels. Assuming a rather broad definition of education, but limiting it to matters involving schools and higher educational institutions and students therein, during each of the last few years the federal government has expended several billions of dollars through these channels, with participation by practically every major governmental department and independent agency.

Federal activities which directly relate to public and private educational institutions, particularly colleges and universities, are assuming increasing importance. Projects in this area include such activities as military scholarships, reserve officer training programs, the veteran programs under the "G. I. Bill of Rights" (P.L. 346),[2] and P.L. 16[3] providing for vocational rehabilitation for World War II disabled veterans. Closely related to these are federal research projects by contract with institutions of higher education through such agencies as the Army, Air Force, Navy, Atomic Energy Commission, and Public Health Service (Federal Security Agency). There is a marked and increasing use of schools and colleges in the federal interest.

Several agencies of the government promote or prepare materials for instruction in schools such as the Civil Aeronautics Administration (Department of Commerce) in the field of aviation education or the Immigration and Naturalization Service (Department of Justice) in the field of citizenship education.

[2] 58 Stat. 284.

[3] 57 Stat. 43.

The education and training of pre- or in-service government personnel is of itself a major enterprise, including extensive activities in regular colleges and universities, educational institutions operated by various governmental agencies, and less formal activities in practically every division of the government.

More difficult to classify are such federal ventures in education as the Graduate School of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and Graduate School of the National Bureau of Standards, institutions which, although in the government, enroll some students who are not in government service.

There are distinct, special, and direct federal responsibilities or activities for education, such as for natives on Guam, American Indians, children on approximately 1,100 federal reservations and special projects, children of federally employed American nationals in occupied areas, exchange of persons for international and intercultural benefit through education, the schools of the District of Columbia, schools in territories, or education in federal penal institutions.

Even with such a brief listing of federal activities in education it becomes evident that this is a major governmental enterprise. The items of overlapping jurisdictions and services, the multiplicity of agencies conducting these activities, the varied methods of making contact with educational institutions in the states, the variety of fiscal and administrative policies involved, and the piecemeal manner in which much of the legislation has been enacted are but a few of the complicating factors.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that no agency now exists in the government with adequate status or resources to assume effective leadership in respect to the situation. The United States Office of Education, in the Federal Security Agency, has neither the authority nor the status among governmental agencies to effect solutions. There are several agencies of the government which have larger educational staffs, more status, and greater educational resources than the Office of Education. Although this office has been effective in performing the functions which the Congress has given to it, and has a record of consider-

able educational service to and co-ordination with other federal agencies dealing with education, its position is such that it has been unable to be an effective integrating force in the total federal educational picture. Its administrative budget is less than the administrative budget of several other federal agencies or sub-agencies dealing with education in the states. Its total budget, including some $32,000,000 in subsidies which it distributed to the states in fiscal 1949, is approximately one per cent of the federal expenditure through or for educational institutions and students therein. These facts are here included merely to indicate the relatively subordinate position which this office holds in the over-all federal educational program.

In passing it may be mentioned that this subordinate position of the Office of Education is probably not a matter of mere chance. It is more logically a reflection through Congress of the concern of the states and of the people that education not be nationalized in terms of control and administration. It has been assumed that control follows money and that status precedes centralization. Whether or not this claim is valid as applied to education will be analyzed in later chapters. It should be added that we believe it neither desirable nor feasible to centralize all federal educational activities. We do believe, however, that there should be an orderly distribution of these activities among appropriate agencies and that much desirable co-ordination and integration can be effected.

## II. Scope of This Report

A precise definition of education for the purpose of this report will not be attempted. Education might be defined in terms of all of those processes whereby the human mind is influenced. Such a conception would embrace much of government as we conceive it today, and would lead only to confusion. A more practical approach would include only those organized activities of the government which concern (1) the institutionalized educational systems in the states, territories, and outlying possessions;

(2) formal instruction of groups or individuals which has been undertaken and/or which is a federal responsibility.[4]

For general purposes the two aspects of this approach will constitute the focal centers of this report, with greater emphasis on the first. This emphasis is justified because it is through the regularly constituted schools of the country that much of our individual and collective competency and citizenship are developed.

The scope of this report was further specified by P.L. 162, Eightieth Congress, 1st Session, which in establishing the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government indicated its purposes as stated in the preface to this book. The specifications of this act precluded extensive consideration of new or expanded activities, the focus being on those now in effect.

Because organization and procedure are inseparable from policy and objective, we believe it essential that the scope of this report include consideration of policy, both as now developed and as it should be developed. This will be done largely in terms of the appropriate organization and procedure necessary to make proper policies effective.

This report on education assumes that any changes in educational activities must fit into governmental structure and fiscal relations with states which will remain essentially in their present form. If extensive changes are anticipated in these matters, they may well include educational considerations. For instance, if general block grants to states are planned, several of the present specialized educational grants to states could be combined into general educational grants although this report has not emphasized this approach.

In many other matters this report may be affected by decisions which are basically non-educational. We have made little effort to evaluate educational programs which are closely allied with the operations of non-educational agencies of the government, in the belief that such operations are not a concern of this report on education. Similarly, we should prefer to make a recommendation that certain state matching of grants in aid be eliminated, but

[4] See Chapter 2 for details concerning this definition.

recognize that to eliminate matching requirements in educational grants while retaining them elsewhere might jeopardize educational support in poorer states and place state budgets in a position of imbalance. Educational matters so intertwine with other considerations and governmental functions that many matters beyond the scope of a study devoted to education must be taken into account in making final decisions.

Still another limiting factor in this report is the necessity for fitting federal educational activities which concern education in the states into the organizational structures which exist or are likely to exist in states. For instance, each state has some type of department of education for elementary and secondary school matters, while any over-all state agency for higher education is lacking in practically all states. Thus our consideration of federal relations with elementary and secondary schools is greatly simplified as compared with the complex arrangements which must be made in dealing directly with the numerous higher educational institutions.

## III. Current Status of Education in the United States

Because the major concern of this report is the role of the federal government in relation to education through the regularly constituted educational systems and institutions in the states, it is appropriate to give a very brief review of the status of education in the United States. What is the status of our population in reflecting the effectiveness of our educational program?[5]

Each generation has been receiving progressively more education. In 1947 half of the 25 to 29 year olds had completed 12 or more years' schooling, while one-sixth of the persons 65 or over in age had received that amount of education. While the achievement over the years is commendable, we are still faced with the fact that among those recently completing their educa-

[5] Data concerning this question obtained primarily from *Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics,* Bureau of the Census, Series P–20, No. 15, May 4, 1948.

tion (25 to 29 years of age) half have not completed high school.

Inroads are being made on the illiteracy problem, although ten per cent of our population 25 years old and over in 1947 had completed fewer than five years of elementary school. For the 25 to 29 age group, however, this figure was four per cent.

Marked differences in education by racial groups are still noted. In 1947 of all white persons [6] 25 years old and over, about 35 per cent had completed four years of high school or more, while only about 13 per cent of non-whites in this age group had received this amount of education. While one white person in every ten has less than five years of schooling, among non-whites three in every ten have not reached this very minimal standard. Although the median white person age 25 to 29 has completed four years of high school, the median non-white in this age group has only completed elementary school. The lag in education of the non-white is also indicated by the fact that among whites who completed most of their education more than a generation ago (65 years old and over) the proportion completing less than five years of elementary school is approximately the same as for non-whites recently educated (25 to 29 years old).

In 1947, 81.2 per cent of youth 14 to 17 years of age were in school, an all-time high. By contrast, in 1910, 58.9 per cent of children of this age were in school.[7] Of 18 and 19 year olds in 1947, 27.7 per cent were in school.

One of the phenomena of our age has been the increased proportion of our youth in attendance at schools. Between 1900 and 1947 the resident enrollment in higher institutions increased ten-fold.[8] During the period from 1890 to 1940, secondary school enrollments increased about nine times as fast as the general population and more than twenty times as fast as the population

[6] Most persons of Mexican birth are classified as white. "Non-white" consists of Negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and other non-white races.

[7] A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. 6, Resource Data, Washington, D.C., December 1947, p. 1.

[8] The same, p. 19.

group 14 to 17 years of age.[9] Practically all of the 6 to 13 age group are now in school.

The rapid increase in child population during the war years is yet another complicating factor in the matter of providing educational facilities, teachers, and programs for an increasingly large school population. Between 1945 and 1950 the elementary schools of the country will add some 2,000,000 children to their rolls [10] although estimates of this increase vary. Practically all areas of the country are now undergoing educational growing pains in attempting to provide school plant and teaching staff to accommodate these added children. The increased birth rate and migrations of peoples will make it necessary to double the school plant and staff within the next very few years in some areas of the country. The growth will soon reflect itself in the secondary schools. A solution of the problems involved will demand planning and leadership at local, state, and federal levels.

In the early 1940's, within the continental United States, there were over 180,000 elementary schools of which all but approximately 10,300 were public. Of about 32,000 secondary schools, over 90 per cent were public. The distribution of the 1,749 higher institutions is indicated by Table 1. Of these, slightly more than one-third were public institutions.[11]

These educational institutions had an enrollment of pupils and resident students of some 29,000,000 individuals in 1947. Of these, approximately 20,000,000 were in elementary schools, 6,200,000 in secondary schools, and 2,354,000 resident in colleges and universities.[12]

Although it is not within the province of this report to give

[9] *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency*, Section Two, U.S. Office of Education, For the Fiscal Year 1946, p. 84.

[10] Benjamin Fine, *Our Children Are Cheated*, Henry Holt and Company, 1947, p. 6.

[11] A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, Vol. 6, pp. 12–14.

[12] The same, pp. 15 and 19. Also *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency*, U.S. Office of Education, Section Two, For the Fiscal Year 1947, p. 173. See Appendix D for more recent estimates.

TABLE 1. NUMBER AND TYPE OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: 1945–46 *

| *Type* | *Number* |
|---|---|
| Universities and large institutions of complex organization | 131 |
| Colleges of arts and sciences | 557 |
| Independent technical and professional schools | 287 |
| Teachers' colleges and normal schools | 201 |
| Junior colleges | 468 |
| Institutions for Negroes | 105 |
| All institutions | 1,749 |

* A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. 6, Resource Data, Washington, D.C., December 1947, p. 14.

extensive consideration to new or expanded federal educational activities, it is important to realize there are many educational problems which confront the states and the nation. Some of these are implied in the materials presented above in this section.

## IV. ISSUES

We have entered this study with the belief that the basic responsibility for education lies in states and in local educational institutions. With this in mind our major concern naturally is for the regularly constituted schools and higher educational institutions in states, and this concern is mirrored in our major issues. Is there direct or indirect undue federal control of education in states? Is it possible to have federal educational activities reaching into states without undue control? Has the federal government done all in its power to administer its activities which have an impact on education in states in such a manner that self-reliance and self-sufficiency have been encouraged at the state or institutional level? Have these federal activities strengthened education in states in a balanced manner? Historically have federal educational activities been beneficial to education throughout the country? Have federal activities overlapped, duplicated, or worked at cross purposes with other federal activities or with state or local educational activities? What are the individual and

total effects of federal educational activities on schools and higher educational institutions in states? What should be the role of the federal government as related to education in states? These and similar questions which might be asked indicate the areas in which we believe the major issues of this report are located.

Education and educational institutions are a powerful and useful force and means for accomplishing federal purposes. How far can the regularly constituted schools and colleges of the country be used for these federal purposes in the national interest? When does the breaking point come as it concerns the best interests of the schools and higher institutions? How can the specialized interests of the various departments and independent agencies of the government be furthered while at the same time giving full protection to the need for well-rounded education in the states? How can we develop an integrated and co-ordinated total program of activities through the educational institutions of the land and still recognize the close association of many of the activities with the specialized and sometimes competing interests of the various governmental agencies?

Unless the federal government directly assumes responsibility for certain educational activities, many individuals will be denied equal opportunity for education as in the case of dependent children on reservations or Indians or other native peoples. What is the responsibility of the federal government in respect to these individuals? Can an over-all policy be developed or will it be necessary to continue piecemeal and unequal programs operated by the many governmental agencies involved? To what extent can the regular schools in the states or territories be used for these individuals?

It is assumed that we will continue to need a federal educational agency. How can such an agency be set up to give maximum assurance against bureaucratic federal control of education? How can it be protected from partisan influence? How can it best serve the interests of education in states? How far should the various federal educational activities be centralized in this agency? For dispersed federal educational activities should it

serve as an integrating and service force? Where should the federal educational agency be located in the government?

These and similar questions are those to which this study has been directed. They imply the many issues involved and something of the complexity of the situation. This study makes no pretense at answering all of these questions. Its major purpose is to point out the problems, as is done in subsequent chapters, to make a number of recommendations or suggestions in some of the most obvious situations, and to outline federal policies and organization which it is believed will make it possible for progress in the future.

## V. Organization of This Report

Previous studies of the educational activities of the federal government have been hampered by a seeming inability to obtain a complete inventory of these activities. Thus this report has directed itself to this problem and such an inventory with brief descriptive statements is made available in Chapter 2. Organized by departments and independent agencies of the government in alphabetical order, some two hundred separate programs are briefly described.

Before analyzing present activities and policies in education, it is believed desirable to trace the history and growth of the various programs for education in which the federal government has been concerned. Chapter 3 is devoted to the history of federal-state co-operative programs in education, and Chapter 4 deals with a number of non-continuing emergency federal educational activities of the depression and World War II which are significant in understanding the role of the government in the field of education.

This will be followed by several chapters which classify all of the activities inventoried and briefly described in Chapter 2 by the educational level with which each is concerned and the general purpose. A number of problems, suggestions, and recommendations as they apply to these activities will be included. Chapter 5 is devoted to federal activities which clearly concern

elementary and secondary education. Similarly, Chapter 6 deals with those activities which clearly concern higher education. A number of activities which cannot be clearly segregated as between elementary-secondary and higher education are treated in Chapter 7. A few activities which in some of their aspects concern the regular schools or colleges of the country and in other educational aspects do not, are considered in Chapter 8. Chapter 9 deals with federal educational or training activities which clearly do not concern the regularly constituted schools and higher educational institutions in the states.

In order to understand the educational programs and problems of the federal government, it is essential that we review briefly the history, organization, and services of the United States Office of Education. This is done in Chapter 10.

As we are committed to a policy of retaining major control of education in states and educational institutions and as it is there that we believe strength in initiative and responsibility should lie, our major criteria for the evaluation of federal activities should be in terms of the effect of these federal activities on education in states. This effect, in its historical aspects, is considered briefly in Chapter 11. Chapters 12 and 13 are devoted to the effects of these federal educational activities on elementary-secondary schools and on colleges and universities.

While a number of recommendations and suggestions concerning individual educational activities will be made in Chapters 5 through 13, the major suggestions concerning federal policy and organizational structure will be given in Chapter 14. This will be preceded by a brief summary of federal educational participation.

# *Chapter 2.* THE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Education should be thought of as a means rather than as an end in itself. Public education as we conceive it has been concerned with ends in terms of individual and social competency, benefit, and growth. It will be noted from the materials of this chapter that education and the educational systems of this country have been used extensively by the federal government towards ends which do not necessarily have their primary focus on general individual and social competency even though these may be a by-product. With few exceptions, the federal interest in education is centered in special groups of individuals, special programs in promotion of causes represented by federal departments or agencies, or in research and training to promote some rather distinctly federal concern such as national defense or competency for federal employment.

It would be a gross misjudgment to assume that the relatively large sums of money indicated in the programs and activities described in this chapter reflect of necessity such a large contribution to the general cause of education in this country. For instance, of the total budgetary identifiable and available sums of money obligated for education by the federal government in the fiscal year of 1947, better than 90 per cent was war- or defense-connected for such items as education and educational facilities for veterans, schools in defense areas, pre- or in-service education for the military, military research through universities, or raising the educational level of members of the armed forces. If such added items as in-service training in military service schools, educational activities of the Atomic Energy Commission, and value of surplus war property given or sold at discount to educational institutions were included, the percentage would be higher.

It is recognized that individual and social ends and benefit to the regularly constituted educational institutions in the states may be furthered, and without doubt often are, by this large federal participation in education. The fact must be emphasized, however, that in the large majority of cases such must be considered a by-product or as incidental to the special concern of the government for the group or federal interest served. In this connection, the motive must be considered. The large majority of these federal activities have been motivated by a desire to use education as a potent tool to promote a federal interest. Occasionally this federal interest has of itself been basically educational, but often education is considered a means or method of accomplishing something which of itself is not necessarily educational. A clear-cut dichotomy of classification in this respect is often difficult. Yet such must be attempted by any reader who would classify these federal educational activities into those which are primarily *an aid* to education as contrasted with those which are primarily *a use of education as a tool* to promote what may be essentially a non-educational program.

In the inventory of educational activities of the federal government which follows, for purposes of identification programs are indicated as in category "A" or category "B." Some few programs are listed under both categories, as specific identification has been impossible or a single program includes activities in both categories. In order to define these categories, the following is quoted from a bulletin used by the Bureau of the Budget (April 1948) in searching for federal educational activities in cooperation with the departments and independent agencies of the executive branch of the government:

*Category A:*

The report of the Commission will place greatest emphasis on activities of this category. In category A are activities of the Federal Government which

(1) directly affect, or

(2) operate through, or

(3) provide education similar to that offered by the regular public

or private elementary and secondary schools, colleges, and universities engaged in the general and specialized academic, professional, and vocational education of youth and adults of the United States, its territories, and possessions. This category includes, but is not restricted to:

(1) activities having to do with instruction, training, research (including contract research), guidance, scholarships (tuition, travel, and subsistence), libraries, buildings, equipment, and so forth, as they pertain to the institutions described in the above paragraph;

(2) federal facilities or arrangements for education of children and youth in special Federal jurisdictions, reservations, federally-owned properties, or of children of federally-employed personnel in foreign countries or occupied areas;

(3) federally-owned or supported (either wholly or largely) educational institutions giving substantial curricular offerings similar to the regular educational institutions of the country, such as the U.S. Military Academy and Howard University. Conversely, the National War College and the Command and General Staff School fall in category B below, as they are very different, both in purpose or offering, from the regular educational institutions of the country.

Other illustrations of activities falling in category A are: fiscal aid to land grant colleges, the agricultural experiment and extension programs, veterans' education, the apprentice training program, undergraduate and graduate training of military officers in universities and colleges, the United States Armed Forces Institute program of the military forces, the CAA program of aviation education, international exchange of students and professors (exclusive of governmental in-service training), and the Treasury Department School Savings Program.

*Category B:*

Activities of lesser importance in the Commission's major analysis, but still important in cataloging the total Federal enterprise in education, are in category B. These are less easily identified by definition, program, and/or funds, and are activities involving specialized in-service training of Federal personnel through other than the regularly organized schools of category A; activities of UNESCO; re-education of foreign peoples in occupied areas; and similar miscellaneous activities. This should include any educational and training program or group instruction which the Federal Government supports or operates which is not included in category A. Excluded from this study are

such mass instruction programs as the "Voice of America" or the issuance of news releases.

Further illustrations of activities falling in category B are: the instruction programs in the specialized military service schools (all such schools may be lumped for a given service, and so reported); or a school for training of clerks in a given governmental department.

Information was requested by the Bureau of the Budget on all educational activities of the federal government which were in operation for fiscal years 1947 or 1948, or which will be in operation in fiscal year 1949. Activities discontinued on or before June 30, 1946, were not included. All transfers between agencies have been included in reports of the spending agencies.

It will be noted that in-service training of government personnel for the improvement of government service has been included in this inventory, a function some of which in a strict sense is not in the field of education. However, as many of these programs are carried out through the regular institutions of the country (category A) and cannot do other than affect these institutions, they have been included for major emphasis. Those in-service activities falling in category B are closely associated, and have been included only for general inventory purposes, as are other activities in this category. They are involved with *training* in contrast to *education*. The two are closely associated, particularly as the methods of education are often used in training.

It is believed that the inventory presented below includes most of the activities of the federal government in category A. Exceptions are noted in several federal functions of assistance to or support of education which are not susceptible to specific identification and thus are omitted from the inventory. Illustrative of these are: "in lieu" taxes paid to local governing bodies which in turn may devote a portion of such sums to the local support of education, and the somewhat comparable indirect federal support for operation of public schools in the District of Columbia (see Chapter 5); Federal Communications Commission licensing of broadcasting stations and reserving of FM channels for educational use; or dedication of certain income from public lands to

states for schools or roads when the amounts devoted to education are not readily available (see Chapter 3). Certain other programs, such as the U.S. Maritime Commission program of furnishing curricular materials and teacher helps to schools, were discontinued prior to fiscal 1947, but previously published materials and a residue of service are still available. Such programs are not mentioned in the inventory.

Because of the lesser importance of category B activities to the purpose of this report and because such activities are often, by their nature, difficult to identify or dissociate from broader operations or activities, it may be best to consider activities in this category as illustrative of federal activities in this classification. It will be noted that less detailed information is given for many of the category B activities. For instance, in the National Military Establishment it is usually impossible to dissociate the cost of operating a training service school on a post or station from the general post operational moneys. Due to this, no fiscal figures were requested for these programs.

It will be noted that fiscal figures for the various activities often are not comparable. In some instances, subsistence or stipends to students are included in amounts; in other cases, programs will be noted for which subsistence or stipends are not included. In still other instances, overhead administration, tuitions, salaries of teaching staff, use or construction of buildings, and similar items, may or may not have been included. This situation has been unavoidable due to the peculiar circumstances or legislative authority under which the varying programs operate or which control the manner in which their financial accounts are maintained. Many of the fiscal figures are of necessity the best estimates available, while in other cases amounts have been indicated as not available (NA) due to the fact that educational activities are often fused with more general operations.

It is essential that these factors be kept in mind in any effort to make comparisons between programs or to arrive at totals. However, these do not constitute a major obstacle to the purpose of this report, which is to give a descriptive statement of the

varied educational activities of the federal government. This does not aim to be a C.P.A. type of report. Fiscal figures are included only for the purposes of added description concerning the magnitude of these federal activities and of indicating something of their manner of operating.

Those conversant with other studies in the field of federal participation in education will note that programs and figures here presented do not necessarily conform with other studies. This is to be expected due to several factors, the most important of which are: variations in definition as to what constitutes education; variations in treatment of funds transferred between agencies; variations between funds authorized, appropriated, expended, obligated, and/or available; variations in the degree of comprehensiveness of the search for federal educational activities; and the fact that the appropriation structure and subsequent government accounting usually do not lend themselves readily to the yielding of precise information by program or function. The previous pages will indicate the consistency of this report in these respects.

In order to assure consistency in the use of the fiscal terms of this report, the following definitions are presented:

1. *Contract authorization*—a statutory authorization under which contracts or other obligations may be entered into prior to appropriations for the payment of such obligations;

2. *Appropriation*—an authorization by an Act of Congress to make payments out of the Treasury for specified purposes within a prescribed amount;

3. *Expenditures*—the amount of approved vouchers, claims, or other documents which have been entered into the accounts of an agency as final charges against an appropriation;

4. *Obligations*—consist of orders placed, contracts awarded, services received, and all other transactions during a given period which definitely reserve the appropriation for expenditure;

5. *Authorization (statutory)*—an amount provided by law as the maximum amount which may be appropriated for obligation during a specified period;

6. *Transferred funds*—amounts utilized by the performing

agency or bureau which were appropriated to another agency or bureau;

7. *Available funds*—total amount available for obligation, irrespective of source.

## I. Inventory of Federal Educational Activities

The diverse nature of the various federal activities and programs in the field of education, and the extent of their diffusion throughout the government, will be noted from the inventory of this section. This listing, by departments and independent agencies of the government in alphabetical order, is of necessity such that only a cursory descriptive statement is possible regarding each activity. Effort has been made to include only such information as will disclose the general nature of the programs. For some of the more important programs more descriptive material is presented in later chapters, in which cases the chapter references are given. Readers are cautioned against attempting an evaluation of any program on the basis of the limited information presented here.

A brief statement of abbreviations used in the inventory is necessary. Unless otherwise indicated, the use of a year such as "1947" refers to the federal fiscal year ending on June 30th of that year. The 1948 and 1949 fiscal amounts include funds made available by appropriations of Congress up to June 20, 1948. The letters "A" or "B" following the activity indicate its category, as defined earlier in this chapter. The symbol "NA" is used when the information is not available as to fiscal amount (or amount is unidentifiable from other funds) or as to whether the present program or an identifiable forerunner of it existed during the given year. The "—" indicates that the program was not in operation for the given year. The "O" indicates that the program was authorized or operating under general authorization, but that no federal funds were involved or identifiable. An "E" preceding a number means that the federal agency involved has desired that the figure be considered as purely an estimate. All information presented in this inventory is from the Bureau of the

Budget, in co-operation with the departments and independent agencies involved, unless otherwise indicated.

The inventory tabulation follows on pages 23 to 56.

## II. Federal Educational Activities Outside the Executive Branch

In order to make this inventory more complete, two educational activities of the federal government outside the Executive Branch, and thus not subject to the purpose of this report, are presented:

Non-executive Branches of Government

| *Sub-agency, Activity, and Purpose* | *Explanation and Description* | *Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars)* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *1940* | *1947* | *1948* | *1949* |
| Legislative Branch, House and Senate: education of Senate, House, and Supreme Court pages "A" | This program is by arrangement with the Board of Education for the District of Columbia | NA | 11 | 21 | 29 |
| Library of Congress: cooperation with American Republics program "B" | Funds transferred from Department of State | — | 146 | 43 | 35 |

## DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Production and Marketing Administration.*—School-lunch program, to "safeguard the health and well-being of the Nation's children and to encourage the domestic consumption of nutritious agricultural commodities and other foods * * * "[1] A cooperative Federal-State program, except the U. S. Department of Agriculture deals directly with certain private schools. (A) | All of 1940 sum and $2,654,000 of 1947 sum from Exportation and Domestic Consumption of Agricultural Commodities Act (7 U. S. C. 612 (c)) appropriations. Remainder 1947 sum from School Lunch Act appropriations.<br>1947: 6,016,129 children, 44,537 schools, had school lunch assistance.<br>1948, 1949: $17,200,000 of total sum each year from Exportation and Domestic Consumption of Agricultural Commodities Act. Break-down is as follows:<br>Item — 1948 — 1949<br>Food assistance — $68,500,000 — $73,400,000<br>Purchase of commodities — 17,000,000 — 17,000,000<br>Administrative expenses — 1,700,000 — 1,800,000 | 12,646 | 81,903 | 87,200 | 92,200 |
| *Forest Service.*—Payment to school funds of New Mexico and Arizona. (A) | A portion of the proceeds of national forests in these States is appropriated for public schools.<br>1948, 1949: Includes $49,000 each year to school funds of Arizona and New Mexico and an added $24,000 each year for farm forestry investigations through cooperation with agricultural experiment stations. | 23 | 39 | 73 | 73 |
| *Agricultural Research Administration.*—Office of Experiment Stations: Agricultural experiment stations, to promote scientific investigation on principles and applications of agricultural science. A cooperative Federal-State program operating in land-grant colleges. (A) | 1947: Of sum indicated, $182,000 was for administration, remainder paid to States. In addition, non-Federal sources contributed $27,669,999, or $3.84 for each $1 of Federal grant. 3,341 specific lines of research in fields authorized by Federal acts plus over 4,000 non-Federal lines of research were carried on by experiment stations.[2]<br>1948, 1949: Statistics follow:<br>Item — 1948 — 1949<br>Payments to States — $7,161,000 — $7,361,000<br>Administration — 211,000 — 197,000<br>State required matching — 2,661,000 — 2,861,000 | 7,004 | 7,388 | 7,372 | 7,558 |
| *Agricultural Research Administration.*—Research investigations, experiments, and demonstrations to further various fields of agriculture. These are not the normal experiment stations grants as above. (A) | 1947: This summarized 15 programs in which various subagencies of the Agricultural Research Administration dispersed research funds to cooperating higher educational institutions, such as experiment stations in land-grant colleges, for various types of agricultural research, in accordance with memoranda of understanding. Sum includes only that portion going to educational institutions from much larger general research funds. | 3,719 | 4,944 | 5,054 | 5,168 |

[1] 60 stat. 230.
[2] Report on the Agricultural Experiment Stations, 1947, issued January 1948, prepared by the Office of Experiment Stations, U. S. Department of Agriculture, pp. 2 and 107.

NOTE: For discussion of Production and Marketing Administration see Chapters 3 and 5 of this book. For Agricultural Research Administration see Chapter 3.

## DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Soil Conservation Service.*—Research into character, cause, extent, history, and effects of erosion, and to carry out preventive measures to conserve soil and water. (A) | Disbursements made to educational institution cooperators, such as land-grant colleges, in accordance with memoranda of understanding. This summarizes 2 programs. | 1,797 | 1,542 | 1,180 | 1,680 |
| *Extension Service.*—Cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics, to disseminate scientific and other information to farmers for the development and improvement of agriculture. A cooperative Federal-State program operating through land-grant colleges. (A) | 1947: Operating in 3,097 counties were 4,407 county agricultural agents and assistants, 2,808 home demonstration agents and assistants, 553 4-H Club agents, and over 700 Negro extension workers. Total technically trained personnel on county, State, and Federal level were about 11,000. 4,500,000 farm families served. Non-Federal sources contributed over $25,000,000 to program, or 47.6 percent (approximately $0.91 for each $1.00 of Federal grant). [3]<br>1948, 1949: Break-down is as follows: | 19,143 | 28,308 | 28,364 | 31,498 |
| | *Item* / 1948 / 1949<br>Payments to States, etc. / $22,833,000 / $25,907,000<br>Administration and coordination / 827,000 / 827,000<br>Permanent specific appropriation / 4,704,000 / 4,704,000 | | | | |
| *Research and Marketing Act.*—(1) Research into the basic laws and principles relating to agriculture in its broadest aspects; and (2) Research and service work on the distribution and marketing of agricultural products, including their preparation for market, processing, handling, storing, and transporting. (A) | 1948 was first year for which appropriations were made. Sums indicated are portions for research in agricultural experiment stations of land-grant colleges from larger total amounts appropriated under this act. First purpose listed at left received major portion of sums indicated. | ..... | ..... | 4,260 | 4,211 |
| *Production and Marketing Administration.*—Demonstration of grades, standards, and inspection methods of farm products; collecting and publishing information on market news. (A) | Funds are paid as salaries of Federal employees with extension services at land-grant colleges. This summarizes 4 programs. | 94 | 207 | 246 | 256 |
| *Bureau of Agricultural Economics.*—Collection and dissemination of agricultural information in the fields of agricultural economics, crop and livestock estimates, etc. (A) | Disbursements made to educational institution cooperators, such as land-grant colleges, in accordance with memoranda of understanding. This summarizes 2 programs. | 894 | 351 | 364 | 364 |
| *Extension Service.*—Supply and distribution of farm labor through land-grant colleges. (A) | This activity was operated through Extension Service of land-grant colleges for 1 year only during its liquidation. | ..... | ..... | 2,231 | ..... |
| *Rural Electrification Administration.*—Assistance to borrowers in training employees in certain higher institutions in the most beneficial and economical use of electrical power. (A) | This program reactivated in 1948. 4 employees stationed at University of Florida, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, South Dakota State College, and University of Nebraska. These people work through the above colleges on educational programs designed to teach borrowers and their consumers better methods of using the electricity available to them. | ..... | ..... | 20 | 20 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, to train agriculturists from Latin-American countries. (A) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: Approximately 72 trainees studied in 200 educational institutions, some spending added time in the United States Department of Agriculture.<br>1949: Estimate as presented to Congress | ---------- | 159 | 113 | E 132 |
| *U. S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School.*—To: (1) carry on formal organized educational programs in the traditional sense; and (2) act as an educational service agency.[4] (A) | The residence program serves as a graduate school, an in-service training institute, and an adult education organization. With a faculty of over 300 it serves an average enrollment of from 5,000 to 7,000. Courses are offered in departments of biological sciences, languages and literature, mathematics and statistics, office techniques and operations, physical sciences, public administration, social sciences, and technology. A limited number of correspondence courses are also offered. Degrees are not offered, but degree-granting institutions usually accept transferred credit. 14 percent of students are United States Department of Agriculture employees, 74 percent employees of other Government departments, and 10 percent from outside the Government. Student fees pay instructional costs, no Federal appropriation being made for this program.[4] | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| **ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION** | | | | | |
| Operation of "public" elementary and secondary schools for children in Federal communities. (A) | 1947: Several contractors, including Anderson County Board of Education at Oak Ridge and Zia Co. at Los Alamos, provide educational services and Atomic Energy Commission paid all costs. At Richland, the State of Washington and local school district provided $416,000 for operation, and Atomic Energy Commission $125,000. 12,141 children in schools at the 3 communities.<br>1948, 1949: State and local sources materially increased their support at Richland. However, during fiscal year 1948, Atomic Energy Commission has found it necessary to make up the deficit in several nearby communities as well, due to the fact that the financial condition of the schools in those communities has been aggravated by the presence of large numbers of children from the families of the employees of Atomic Energy Commission's contractors. | ---------- | 3,177 | 3,685 | 4,399 |
| Construction of "public" elementary and secondary school facilities for children in Federal communities. (A) | 1947: Construction contracts at Oak Ridge for $57,000, at Los Alamos for $576,000 and at Richland for $851,000.<br>1948: In same order: $1,938,000, $48,000, $3,409,000.<br>1949: In same order: $5,617,000, $2,549,000, $2,942,000. | ---------- | 1,484 | 5,395 | 11,107 |
| Contract research with universities, on-campus. (A) | 1947: Contracts with 9 universities | ---------- | 9,809 | 7,530 | 10,421 |
| Construction of research facilities on university campuses. (A.) | 1947: At 2 universities | ---------- | 1,042 | 4,592 | 6,322 |
| Contract research, with groups of universities, off-campus. (A.) | 1947: One group of 29 universities, one of 9, and another of 14 | ---------- | 9,136 | 34,993 | 28,342 |
| Construction of research facilities for contracting groups of universities, off-campus. (A.) | 1947: For purchase of land and construction of facilities for the group of 29 universities. | ---------- | 2,040 | 28,304 | 36,322 |

[3] Better Rural Living, Report of Cooperative Extension Work in Agriculture and Home Economics, 1947, U. S. Department of Agriculture, pp. 5, 4, 2, 39.
[4] Bulletin, Catalog *Issue 1947-48*, Graduate School, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, August 1947. Also letter of June 7, 1948, from the Director of the Graduate School.

NOTE: For Extension Service see Chapter 3. For U. S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School see Chapter 6. For operation of "public schools" and for construction of "public" schools see Chapter 5.

ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Fellowship program in physical sciences, and medical and biological sciences, to increase the supply of trained scientists. (A) | Program administered by the National Research Council. Ultimate recipients are both the universities where the fellowships are held and the individuals who hold the fellowships. Awards on basis of merit. This program plans to award: 100 predoctoral and 20 postdoctoral physical science fellowships per year; 177 predoctoral and 132 postdoctoral medical and biological sciences fellowships in 1949. Program initiated in 1948. Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — *1948* — *1949*<br>Physical sciences — $1,500,000 — $1,000,000<br>Medical and biological sciences — 1,100,000 — 2,400,000 | ---------- | ---------- | 2,600 | 3,400 |

U. S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Stimulation of in-service training of Government personnel, for the improvement of Government service. (A) and (B). | Counsels Government employees and agencies regarding training facilities available (including those in universities), identification of training needs, training methods, schedules, training aids, tests, etc.[5] Funds not identifiable as operations and training merge. Operated administrative intern program for a small number of promising and carefully selected Government employees with cooperation of American University. | NA | NA | NA | NA |

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Civil Aeronautics Administration.*—Promotion of aviation education in schools and colleges. (A) | Curricular and teacher aid materials prepared and encouraged<br>1947: 133,000 items distributed on request, and 745 conferences held with school officials. Sponsored teacher workshops in 38 States attended by 12,428 teachers. | NA | 160 | 101 | 127 |
| *Civil Aeronautics Administration.*—Contract research in psychology relating to aircraft pilots. (A) | Through research and educational institutions studies are made in pilot training improvement, visual acuity, crash injury, pilot reaction, altitude warning devices, arrangement of instrument panels, etc. | 87 | 34 | 50 | 55 |
| *Weather Bureau.*—Contract research in meteorology. (A) | 1947: 11 contracts with 9 universities | 24 | 59 | 85 | 85 |
| *Office of Small Business*, Management Division, Extension Service Section. Extension Service to assist colleges of business administration and bureaus of business research in providing counseling and information services to small business. (A) | 1947: Agreements in cooperation with State universities in Indiana, Texas, and Michigan, in addition to miscellaneous assistance to other schools.<br>1949: Office of Small Business abolished and its remaining activities transferred to the Office of Domestic Commerce by congressional action on 1949 appropriation bill. | NA | 25 | 25 | 0 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Weather Bureau.*—In-service training of Weather Bureau personnel in advanced meteorology. (A) | 1947: 6 employees attended New York University with government paying tuition and fees while they retained full pay status.<br>1948, 1949: 10 scholarships in 1948 and 10 anticipated for 1949. | 4 | 3 | 6 | 6 |
| *National Bureau of Standards.*—National Bureau of Standards Graduate School. (A) | Advanced study in formal courses in technical and specialized areas of mathematics, physics, chemistry, mechanics, and metallurgy. Program self-supporting on student fees.<br>1948: 500 students enrolled, majority on Bureau staff, but other qualified students admitted. [6] | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| *Civil Aeronautics Administration.*—In-service training of airways and safety personnel in all phases of safety regulation and air navigation. (B) | Classes conducted by CAA in courses varying from 10 to 500 hours<br>1947: 4,700 employees in training, 30 full-time, plus many part-time instructors. | 370 | 490 | 538 | 540 |
| *Weather Bureau.*—Indoctrination for new employees. (B) | 1947: 81 new employees received basic courses in 5 classes. Sum not available. | 0 | NA | NA | NA |
| Philippine Rehabilitation Act technical training to employees of Philippine Republic. (A) and (B). | Funds transferred from Department of State. Civil Aeronautics Administration, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and Weather Bureau participate.<br>1947: 100 individuals received subsistence and travel, 69 of whom received in-service government training, and 31 university tuition and fees. | ---------- | 420 | 362 | 404 |
| Inter-American Exchange of Persons Program; cooperation with American Republics. (A) and (B). | Funds transferred from Department of State. Mostly in-service within governmental agencies.<br>1947: 6 subagencies paid subsistence, travel, and, when sent to universities, tuition and fees to 98 Latin-American officials. | ---------- | 465 | 229 | 222 |
| **EXECUTIVE OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT** | | | | | |
| *Bureau of the Budget.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for interchange in the field of public administration. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State. Mostly on-the-job training.<br>1947: Training allowances, travel and/or tuition paid for 20 public officials of other countries. Also "short-run" services of advice and consultation to 250 other officials of foreign governments. | ---------- | 34 | 32 | 30 |
| **FEDERAL COMMUNICATIONS COMMISSION** | | | | | |
| Cooperation with American Republics program, to facilitate and encourage international exchange of persons. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: 1 foreign student received grant for travel and allowances while engaged in Federal Communications Commission training program. | ---------- | 2 | 0 | 1 |

[5] Letter of May 13, 1948, from Inspection Division, U. S. Civil Service Commission; also Annual Report for Fiscal Year 1947, Personnel Division, U. S. Civil Service Commission, p. 8.
[6] Letter of May 5 ,1948, from U .S. Department of Commerce; also Announcement of Courses for 1947–48, Graduate School of the National Bureau of Standards, U. S. Department of Commerce.

NOTE: For Civil Aeronautics Administration see Chapter 3. For National Bureau of Standards see Chapter 6.

## FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| **OFFICE OF EDUCATION** | | | | | |
| Vocational education, grants-in-aid to States and Territories for promotion of vocational education of less than college grade. (A) | 1947: States required to match dollar for dollar, but contributed $62,145,000; 2,508,618 persons enrolled in vocational classes, an increase of 280,955 over previous year. | 20,297 | 20,639 | 26,619 | 27,128 |
| Education of the public in food conservation, through cooperation with States. (A) | 1947: 451,864 persons participated in 3,000 food processing centers in 40 States. Canned 66,312,933 pints of food; 1,512,444 pounds lard rendered; 2,591,704 pounds meat cured; 2,619,881 pounds food frozen; 577,611 pounds food dehydrated. Program administered through State boards for vocational education. Sum indicated was for instructors and administration. Discontinued June 30, 1947. | ---------- | 836 | ---------- | ---------- |
| Veterans' educational facilities program. Advisory and certification of need services by Office of Education to Federal Works Agency re war surplus educational facilities required by schools and colleges for education of veterans. (A) | Funds transferred from Federal Works Agency. Program providing (in all) 16,534,000 square feet of floor area in classrooms, offices, laboratories, libraries, cafeterias, etc., principally at higher educational institutions. In addition, surplus personal property at fair value of $92,989,000 transferred to educational institutions.[7] (See Federal Works Agency.) | ---------- | 160 | 192 | 53 |
| General support of land grant colleges, for endowment of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts. (A) | 1949: $19,000 has been requested, which, with anticipated unexpended balance of $34,000, should make $53,000 available. Funds allocated to 69 land-grant colleges of which 17 are for Negroes. Bulk of support comes from nonfederal sources.[8] | 5,030 | 5,030 | 5,030 | 5,030 |
| Assistance to President's Commission on Higher Education in preparation of statistical information. (A) | 1947: Number of full- and part-time faculty, 54,706. Number of resident students, 486,118. In addition, 297,688 extension and 80,996 correspondence students. | ---------- | 12 | ---------- | ---------- |
| Evaluation of audio-visual aids in the Navy program, for the Bureau of Naval Personnel. (A) | Funds transferred from White House Office. Temporary obligation only. | ---------- | ---------- | [9] 30 | [9] 0 |
| Veterans' Educational Information Clearance Service. (A) | Funds transferred from Navy. Service includes cooperation with Bureau of Naval Personnel in selection and definition of evaluation projects; selection of universities, etc., for specific projects; awarding contracts; supervision of projects; interpretation of findings. | ---------- | 22 | ---------- | ---------- |
| | 1947: Funds transferred from Veterans' Administration to enable Office to assist Veterans' Administration by establishing a general pattern of procedure for the collection, compilation, and dissemination of information for veterans. Program subsequently discontinued. | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| General administration. Salaries and expenses of administrative staff, travel, publications, etc. (A) | 1947: Break-down of obligations by divisions:<br>Elementary education $87,000<br>Secondary education 101,000<br>Vocational educational 489,000<br>Higher education 75,000<br>School administration 75,000<br>Auxiliary services 95,000<br>International educational relations 51,000<br>Central services 364,000<br>General administration 65,000<br>Total $1,402,000<br>The above includes basic appropriation of $1,157,000, increased by transfers of $254,000, the largest of which was $162,000 from Federal Security Agency for travel, printing, and binding. | 800 | 1,402 | 1,791 | 1,898 |
| Surplus property utilization. (A) | Funds transferred from War Assets Administration, used to provide consultative and technical service to War Assets Administration, Army, Air Force, and Navy in distribution of property not needed by Government, to 17,834 eligible educational institutions in 1947. For year ending October 1, 1947, Federal property valued at over $450,000,000 was made available to educational institutions at a cost to them of $2,770,033, through this program. | ---------- | 694 | 418 | NA |
| Cooperation with American Republics, Smith-Mundt Act, and Fulbright Act—Exchange of persons program. Includes interchange of students program transferred from Department of State beginning fiscal 1948. (A) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: Program involved exchange of 248 teachers in which 274 educational institutions participated. Also 36 graduate students exchanged who studied in 24 universities. Covered travel and maintenance allowances to trainees and administrative expenses.<br>1948, 1949: Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — *1948* — *1949*<br>Treaty students — $74,000 — $89,000<br>Nontreaty students — 145,000 — 149,000<br>Placement and guidance service — 77,000 — 76,000<br>Teacher exchange — 13,000 — 13,000<br>Allocation and selection service — 35,000 — 32,000<br>General administration — 15,000 — 14,000<br>Studies in Latin-American education — 7,000 — ----------<br>Fulbright Act orientation service — ---------- — 7,000<br>Fulbright Act administration — ---------- — 23,000<br>Smith-Mundt Act — 8,000 — ---------- | ---------- | 195 | 374 | 403 |
| Survey to determine standards of personnel qualifications necessary to the efficient performance on the part of supervisors and instructors in the schools of the Air Training Command (Air Force) and also to determine effectiveness of the use of instructional methods, procedures, devices, and resources, used by these individuals in their respective training programs. (B) | Funds transferred from "Air Corps, Army" | ---------- | ---------- | [9]25 | [9]0 |

[7] Letter of April 26, 1948, from Bureau of Community Facilities, Federal Works Agency.
[8] Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Bulletin 1947, No. 14, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.
[9] Funds remain available until June 30, 1950.

NOTE: For education of public in food conservation see Chapter 4. For veterans' educational facilities see this chapter. For general support of land-grant colleges see Chapter 3. For general administration see Chapter 10.

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| OFFICE OF EDUCATION—Continued | | | | | |
| Procurement of motion pictures, film strips, and other visual aids for use in mental hygiene program of U. S. Public Health Service. (B) | Funds transferred from Public Health Service. The Visual Aids Section of the U. S. Office of Education is utilized in this program. | ---------- | ---------- | [10] 40 | [10] 0 |
| PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE | | | | | |
| Research grants to educational institutions and fellowships to students, to encourage promising students interested in becoming proficient in research in medical and related sciences and to promote worth-while research. This also includes a program, initiated in 1948, for cancer control, to improve the teaching of cancer to undergraduate medical and dental students. (A) | Fellows operate under supervision of universities, medical schools, and other institutions. Applicants for research grants are reviewed by study sections made up of outside consultants and recommended through advisory councils to Surgeon General. Grant funds are paid directly to the institutions or individuals undertaking the research.<br>1947: 42 fellows at 25 institutions in 18 States (National Institute of Health); 48 fellows at 22 institutions in 15 States (cancer); 234 research grants to 73 institutions (total employment 951). Of amount obligated in 1947, $147,000 for research fellowships, $2,569,000 for research grants, and remainder for administration (estimate).<br>1948, 1949: Break-downs are as follows: | 162 | 2, 923 | 8, 042 | 17, 481 |

| *Item* | *1948* | *1949* |
|---|---|---|
| National Institute of Health: | | |
| Fellowships | $300, 000 | $400, 000 |
| Research grants | 4, 619, 000 | 6, 162, 000 |
| National Cancer Institute: | | |
| Fellowships | 300, 000 | 400, 000 |
| Research grants | 992, 000 | 449, 000 |
| Construction | 230, 000 | [11] 7, 674, 000 |
| Teaching grants | 1, 389, 000 | 2, 005, 000 |
| Mental Hygiene: | | |
| Fellowships | 70, 000 | 100, 000 |
| Research grants | 142, 000 | 291, 000 |
| Total research grants | 5, 753, 000 | 6, 902, 000 |
| Total fellowships, teaching grants, and construction | 2, 289, 000 | 10, 579, 000 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of State Services* program for training personnel for State and local health work. (A) | Allocations made to States on basis of population, financial need, and extent of special health problems. States in turn make payment to trainees for stipends and travel, and to schools and other institutions for tuition, etc. Federal grants matched by State and local funds.<br>1947: 2,555 persons received training, including 551 physicians, 909 nurses, 537 sanitation, 29 dental, 120 laboratory, and 409 other personnel.<br>1948, 1949: Break-downs are as follows:<br>*Item* — 1948 — 1949<br>Venereal disease — $88,000 — $97,000<br>Tuberculosis — 151,000 — 166,000<br>General health — 661,000 — 694,000<br>Cancer control — 154,000 — 189,000<br>Mental health — 202,000 — 400,000 | 981 | 783 | 1,256 | 1,546 |
| *Division of Nursing* program to train professional nurses for armed forces, governmental and civilian hospitals. A wartime program in process of liquidation, which should be completed during fiscal 1950. (A) | Funds go to schools of nursing or training hospitals to provide stipends for 30 months, and maintenance up to first 9 months, of the cadet nurse training period.<br>1947. At start of fiscal year, 92,481 cadets were in over 1,000 schools of nursing. 33,920 graduated during year, and 5,919 withdrew, leaving 52,642 in training on June 30, 1947. Of 1947 sum, $434,000 for administration and recruitment; $11,492,000 for grants to schools of nursing.<br>1948: All grants cease during the year.<br>1949: Sum for administration only. | ---------- | 11,926 | 4,000 | 350 |
| *Office of International Health Relations* program for Philippine rehabilitation. (A) | Funds transferred from Department of State.<br>1947: 25 Philippine trainees were brought to United States for public health training, United States paying travel, tuition, subsistence allowance, etc. | ---------- | 120 | 100 | NA |
| *Office of International Health Relations.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, to render closer and more effective relationships. (A) | Funds transferred from Department of State. Recipients, who agree to return to specific positions in their own countries, are granted all expenses, no expenses, or part expenses, depending upon circumstances and agreements.<br>1947: 25 trainees brought to United States for public health or postgraduate medical training.<br>1949: Sum is that requested. | ---------- | 73 | 63 | 66 |
| *Hospital division* program for training of medical and hospital personnel. (B) | 1947: Stipends to 183 cadet nurses, interns, and student dieticians. Other training costs not identifiable. | NA | 222 | 422 | 378 |
| *Mental Hygiene Division.*—Grants for training of qualified persons in psychiatry, clinical psychology, psychiatric social work, and psychiatric nursing. (A) | Program initiated in 1948. Grants made to educational institutions for salaries, stipends, and other expenses. Medical schools must match grants for undergraduate training; other grants not matched.<br>1948: All funds for graduate training.<br>1949: $2,200,000 for graduate training, $300,000 for undergraduate training. | ---------- | ---------- | 1,174 | [12] 2,500 |

[10] Funds remain available until June 30, 1950.
[11] Represents 15 building projects at medical schools or associated hospitals against contract authorization of $8,000,000.
[12] Amount is as contained in appropriation bill as it passed the House.

NOTE: For Public Health research grants see Chapter 13.

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE—continued | | | | | |
| *Mental Hygiene Division.*—Demonstrations in professional education, to demonstrate the latest developments of educational techniques to institutions providing training in psychiatry, clinical psychology, psychiatric social work, psychiatric nursing, etc. (A) | Program initiated in 1948. Service pays salaries and other expenses of persons giving demonstrations. Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — 1948 — 1949<br>Personal services — $64,000 — $70,000<br>Travel — 12,000 — 24,000<br>Other expenses — 14,000 — 14,000 | ---------- | ---------- | 90 | [13] 108 |
| *Mental Hygiene Division.*—Training of Public Health Service personnel in schools and other institutions outside the Service, to further the professional training of Service personnel in the mental health specialties. (A) | Program initiated in 1948. Service pays salaries and allowances to trainees and tuition and related charges to institutions providing training. Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — 1948 — 1949<br>Pay and allowances — $11,000 — $17,000<br>Tuition, etc. — — 11,000 | ---------- | ---------- | 11 | [14] 28 |
| Cooperation with American Republics program with National Office of Vital Statistics, to render closer and more effective the relationship between the American Republics. (A) | Funds transferred from Department of State.<br>1947: 4 trainees brought to the United States for training in vital statistics. | ---------- | 1[illegible] | 24 | [15] 13 |
| *Mental Hygiene Division.*—Training of Public Health Service personnel in Service institutions, to further the professional training of Service personnel in mental health specialties. (B) | Program initiated in 1949.<br>1949: Break-down is as follows:<br>Pay and allowances — $42,000<br>Travel — 1,000<br>Supplies and equipment — 10,000 | ---------- | ---------- | ---------- | [16] 53 |
| *Mental Hygiene Division.*—Training institutes, to provide short intensive courses in psychiatry to enable practicing physicians to handle minor psychiatric disorders, and similar courses applicable to the other mental health disciplines. (B) | Program initiated in 1948. Plans are formulated in conjunction with mental health authorities of States in which institutes are held. Service pays salaries and other expenses of persons giving institutes, or contracts for such work. | ---------- | ---------- | 42 | [17] 20 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of State Services* program, to provide training to Federal, State, and local health department personnel, and foreign personnel. (B) | This program, operated and conducted by the Federal Government, is for training Federal employees and commissioned officers and health employees of State governments in general health work, health engineering, and the control of communicable diseases; training individuals sent by foreign governments similarly with emphasis on control of diseases of exotic origin; similar training of certain individuals from commercial institutions. Sums include personal services of technical, professional, and scientific personnel, traveling expenses, production of audio-visual training aids, pamphlets, etc. Last two primarily for use in training centers, but also distributed to State and local health departments, educational institutions, etc. Courses vary from 3 to 10 weeks in length.<br>1947, 1948: Statistics for attendance at courses follow:<br>*Item* — 1947 — 1948<br>State employees — 113 — 583<br>Federal employees and officers — 185 — 45<br>Foreign trainees — 75 — 99<br>Commercial trainees — ——— — 12 | ..... | 281 | 449 | 495 |
| **MISCELLANEOUS** | | | | | |
| *Howard University.*—Undergraduate and graduate program primarily for Negroes. Federal assistance to this quasi-private university. (A) | Federal Government supplies a substantial portion of operating costs. Sums are for current operations, and include certain services to Freedmen's Hospital.<br>1947: Enrollment 7,120 full- and part-time students in the 10 schools and colleges of the university. | 782 | 1,646 | 2,153 | 2,268 |
| *Howard University.*—Plans and construction of buildings. (A) | 1947: Although $15,000 in 1947 was actually obligated, a total of $1,556,495 was available.<br>1948, 1949: Sums include appropriations and contract authorizations. | 194 | 15 | 6,000 | 1,373 |
| *Freedmen's Hospital.*—Training medical and hospital personnel. (A) | Hospital associated with Howard University<br>1947: Sum is for stipends to 240 cadet and student nurses, residents, and interns. Other training costs not identifiable.<br>1949: Freedmen's Hospital will reimburse Howard University for training received by student nurses. Number of student nurses increased. | NA | 87 | 158 | 178 |
| *St. Elizabeths Hospital.*—Training medical and hospital personnel. (A) | 1947: Sum is for stipends to 123 nurses and interns. Other training costs not identifiable.<br>1949: Number of student nurses increased. | NA | 140 | 168 | 194 |
| *Columbia Institution for the Deaf.*—Instruction and further advancement of deaf persons through education. (A) | Payments to board of trustees of the Institution. Deaf mutes of the District of Columbia, together with certain others from outside the District, are admitted without charge.[18]<br>1947: Of 243 enrolled, 160 were in Gallaudet College, the advanced department. | 150 | 246 | 259 | NA |
| *American Printing House for the Blind.*—Manufacture of special equipment and materials for free distribution to schools for the blind. (A) | Located in Louisville, Ky., this nonprofit private institution receives Federal aid to provide continuing service for approximately 6,000 blind children in public schools for the blind. In 1879 Congress appropriated $250,000 as a trust fund, income from which at $10,000 per year is included in sums indicated. In 1940, Federal grant represented 43 per cent of its total income; in 1947, 22 per cent.[19] | 125 | 125 | 125 | 125 |

[13] Amount is as contained in appropriation bill as it passed the House.
[14] Amount is as contained in appropriation bill as it passed the House.
[15] Sum requested.
[16] Amount is as contained in appropriation bill as it passed the House.
[17] Amount is as contained in appropriation bill as it passed the House.
[18] Letter of May 20, 1948, from Federal Security Agency.
[19] Letter of May 20, 1948, from Federal Security Agency.

NOTE: For Columbia Institution for the Deaf and for American Printing House for the Blind see Chapter 7.

FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.*—Rehabilitation of disabled individuals to increase employability, in cooperation with States. (A) | 1947: Through State boards for vocational education, $12,639,155 of Federal money was expended, with $4,857,676 of State money. Total case load was 303,455 persons. 51,575 disabled persons were prepared for and placed in employment, and an added 5,637 were ready for employment. Services included considerable physical restoration, artificial appliances, hospitalization, and placement equipment.[20] 21,941 persons received training in educational institutions for which $1,681,000 of Federal money was involved (sum indicated).<br>1948, 1949: Sums are estimated obligations. All sums are only those used in training at educational institutions. | 882 | 1,681 | E 1,857 | E 2,207 |
| *Social Security Administration.* Division of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance.—In-service training to equip employees with a knowledge of the Social Security Act as well as the technical procedures and operations of the day-to-day job. (B) | 1940: Sum is approximate cost of the administration of the in-service training program. In addition, the approximate cost of salaries, travel expenses, per diem, etc., of trainees was $175,000.<br>1947: Same as for 1940, except added cost for trainees was approximately $215,000. | E 30 | E 46 | E 50 | E 50 |

FEDERAL WORKS AGENCY

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of Community Facilities.*—Maintenance and operation of schools under "Lanham Act," to help support public schools, the financing of which was adversely affected by the war or its aftermath. (A) | Contributions direct to school districts<br>1947: 193 schools aided, having an average daily attendance of 405,955 pupils. Federal assistance averaged 15 percent of total budgets of these schools. Break-down is as follows: | ---------- | 6,904 | 4,500 | 3,000 |

| *Item* | *1947* | *1948* | *1949* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Administration | $215,000 | $70,000 | $100,000 |
| Aid to schools | 6,689,000 | 4,430,000 | 2,900,000 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of Community Facilities.*—Veterans' Educational Facilities Program, to provide war surplus educational facilities to schools and colleges for the education of veterans. (A) | This program, for which U. S. Office of Education had responsibility of determining need (see Federal Security Agency), provided buildings for educational institutions (principally colleges and universities). Cost usually included disassembling, moving, and reassembling of surplus buildings. Program also provided surplus educational equipment, furnishings, etc. | ---------- | 62,729 | 19,400 | 2,000 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1947: 812 educational institutions received buildings; many of these also received equipment, etc. 596 added institutions received equipment, etc., only. All of these institutions enrolled total of over 1,000,000 veterans. During 1947, 13,985,899 square feet of floor space was allocated, though not necessarily moved. Valuation of buildings and equipment, etc., not included in sum. Break-down is as follows:<br>Administration of program..... $2,159,000<br>Project operations..... 60,570,000<br>1949: Program in process of liquidation. | | | | |

## HOUSING AND HOME FINANCE AGENCY

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Providing temporary housing to veterans attending educational institutions.[1] (A) | Educational institutions provided site, trunk utilities, streets and sidewalks, and management of completed housing. Housing and Home Finance Agency provided demounted war housing, and usually cared for recrecting on site. Value of buildings unknown. In May 1948 Housing and Home Finance Agency reported cost of construction to have been approximately $156,000,000, not identifiable by years. Government receives portion of rental return.[2] | ..... | NA | NA | NA |
| In-service training of employees.[3] (A)..... | Arrangements are periodically made with American University for establishment of evening courses which are of value to Housing and Home Finance Agency employees. Housing and Home Finance Agency usually nominates officials, to the university, to teach the courses.[2] | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## INSTITUTE OF INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Training of Latin-American technicians in the United States, to give special training to professional personnel for positions in or related to program of the Institute. (A) | The Institute is a federally chartered corporation, succeeding the Inter-American Educational Foundation in 1947, which the 1947 figure includes.<br>1947: About 400 students and trainees (about ⅓ of whose expenses were paid by themselves or foreign governmental agencies), including doctors, nurses, engineers, agriculturists, educators, etc., received training in the United States. Of sum indicated, $57,000 was for administration. | ..... | 350 | 348 | 235 |
| Cooperative education programs with other American Republics, to strengthen friendship and understanding. (B) | See above. Cooperative program in 13 other American republics, of United States field parties of educational technicians, and project assistance.<br>1947: Of sum indicated, $112,000 was for administration.<br>1948, 1949: Administration reduced to $100,000 and $50,000 respectively. | ..... | 1,075 | 1,315 | 1,100 |

[1] Office of Vocational Rehabilitation for the Fiscal Year 1947, Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency, sec. 7, pp. 589, 590, 622, 629.
[2] Letter and enclosures of May 28, 1948, from Housing and Home Finance Agency.
[3] Letter of May 28, 1948, from Housing and Home Finance Agency.

NOTE: For Office of Vocational Rehabilitation see Chapter 3. For Bureau of Community Facilities see Chapter 4 and later in this chapter. For providing temporary housing to veterans attending educational institutions see later in this chapter.

## DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Government in the Territories.*—Assistance to Alaska, for the establishment and maintenance of public schools. (A) | | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| *Bureau of Reclamation.*—Education of children of Federal employees at Boulder Canyon and Columbia Basin projects (Boulder City, Nev., and Coulee Dam, Wash.), to compensate public school districts. (A) | 1947: Funds paid directly to public school districts at $25 per semester per pupil at Coulee Dam and $45 per semester per pupil at Boulder, plus obligations incurred on fiscal year basis for construction of new buildings. 539 dependent pupils at Coulee Dam and 250 at Boulder City. Of sum indicated, approximately $68,000 for construction of buildings.<br>1948, 1949: No appropriation for Coulee Dam school district. 1949 sum includes $690,000 for construction of school building at Boulder City. 1949 reimbursement to Boulder City school district for education estimated at not to exceed $65 per pupil per semester. | 78 | 124 | 39 | 740 |
| *Bureau of Indian Affairs.*—Operation of schools for education of Indians in United States. (A) | Includes education of Indians in Alaska<br>1947: 238 Federal Indian schools operated, enrolling 30,254 pupils. Contracts with some 1,140 school districts provided schooling for an added 13,759 pupils. 6 State contracts provided for 8,797 pupils. 79 handicapped children were provided tuition, care, and expenses. 1,423 pupils were sent to 10 mission boarding and day schools. 3 Indian museums were operated. Break-down is as follows:<br>Federal boarding schools ..... $6,902,000<br>Federal day schools ..... 2,539,000<br>Mission schools ..... 131,000<br>Public school assistance ..... 1,348,000<br>Higher education ..... 2,000<br>Supervision ..... 325,000<br>Museums ..... 44,000<br>1948, 1949: Separate appropriations these years for Navajo and Hopi service included. Public school assistance increased to $1,627,000 in 1949. Tuition for higher education also increased to $9,000. | 9,006 | 11,291 | 11,140 | 12,054 |
| *Bureau of Indian Affairs.*—Operation of schools for natives of Alaska. (A) | 1947: 3 federally operated boarding schools enrolled 970 boarding and 50 day pupils; 106 day schools had an average daily attendance of 3,657 pupils; 12 blind and deaf students were sent to schools in Washington State and Vancouver. | 729 | 1,622 | 1,433 | 1,475 |
| *Bureau of Indian Affairs.*—Maintenance and construction of schools for education of Indians. (A) | 1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Construction of Federal reservation schools ..... $20,000<br>Construction of Federal day schools ..... 104,000<br>Construction of State public schools ..... 25,000<br>Maintenance ..... 466,000<br>1949: Construction of State public schools increased to $778,000. | 149 | 615 | 1,083 | 1,664 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Fish and Wildlife Service.*—Pribilof Islands schools, for elementary education of natives. (A) | Native children are required to attend school until 16 years of age. Schools are operated by Alaskan Fisheries Division of this agency. Education beyond elementary school is provided by Bureau of Indian Affairs at Wrangell or Sitka.<br>1947: 3 teachers at St. Paul Island instructed 82 pupils; 2 at St. George Island instructed 39 pupils. Sum includes $6,000 for enlargement of schoolhouse. | 8 | 21 | 15 | 15 |
| *Bonneville Power Administration.*—Contract research related to power processes, utilization, and markets. (A) | 1947: 3 contracts with 2 land grant colleges in the area | NA | 22 | 0 | 0 |
| *Fish and Wildlife Service.*—Cooperative wildlife research unit program, to carry on research to determine better management for the wildlife resource and to give men technical training for its administration and management. (A) | Cooperating agencies are land-grant colleges, State game departments, The Wildlife Management Institute, and the U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service. Each public agency contributes at least $6,000 annually per unit. Sums indicated are for salaries and expenses paid to Fish and Wildlife Service biologists at land-grant colleges.<br>1947: 10 Service biologists directed 10 cooperative research units in 10 land-grant colleges. Non-Federal contributions, $170,000.<br>1949: 14 units in 14 land-grant colleges. | 60 | 76 | 70 | 97 |
| *Fish and Wildlife Service.*—Fellowships for students training in fishery technology, economics, and statistics, to acquaint college students with the possible opportunities in the fisheries. (A) | 1947: 3 fellowships granted during year, for university doctoral research. Each is paid a salary for time on actual fisheries research. Each is obligated to devote at least half time to research. | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| *National Park Service.*—In-service training of employees in forest and building fire protection and control. (B) | Short intensive courses are operated for new employees and short refresher courses for experienced personnel.<br>1947: Although much of this training merges with operations, identifiable estimate of direct training costs is the sum indicated. | NA | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| *Office of the Secretary.*—In-service training for present and potential supervisors in the employment of the Department, in a Supervisors' Forum, to achieve optimum efficiency in performance. (B) | 20 weekly meetings, repeated at intervals, of from 15 to 25 present or potential supervisors in the employ of the Department. Includes brief lectures, discussions, and exchanges of experience to improve supervision in the Department. Funds not identifiable. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Geological Survey.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for exchange of persons, to provide training in field geology to qualified citizens of the American Republics. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State.<br>1947: 6 geologists from 6 different American Republics came to this country for advanced training in geology with U. S. Geological Survey. | ---------- | 20 | 12 | 12 |
| *Fish and Wildlife Service.*—Philippine rehabilitation program to rehabilitate fishery resources. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: 21 Filipinos were granted training awards in fishery biology and fishery technology in the United States. | ---------- | 100 | 192 | 192 |
| *Fish and Wildlife Service.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for training in fishery sciences and management. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: 7 trainees in the United States. | ---------- | 23 | 10 | 19 |
| *Bureau of Reclamation.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, to promote scientific and cultural relations with other American countries. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: Approximately 100 citizens of other American countries were conducted through Bureau facilities and construction projects. Approximately 50 were regular trainees without compensation or direct cost to the Bureau.<br>1949: It is proposed to award training grants in design and construction of irrigation works to qualified citizens of several American countries. | ---------- | 5 | 11 | 12 |
| *Bureau of Mines.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for training of persons from other American countries. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1948: One trainee on this program, beginning Feb. 1, 1948, received grant for transportation, maintenance during training period, and per diem between points of training in United States. | ---------- | 0 | 3 | 0 |

NOTE: For Bureau of Reclamation see Chapter 5.

## DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *National Park Service.*—Yosemite School of Field Natural History, to teach naturalists conservation methods and to prepare students for employment as naturalists in areas administered by the Service. (B) | Each year about 24 students are admitted. Only a few subsequently become Service employees. Sum indicated is rough estimate, as activity merges with operations. | NA | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| *Bureau of Mines,* Safety Branch.—Training program for prevention of accidents. (B) | 1947: 27,564 persons employed in mineral and allied industries were given a full course in first aid and 2,424 in mine rescue. These persons were from many industries including coal mining, metal mining, cement, quarrying, metallurgical, petroleum and natural gas, and nonmetallic mining. Work done through lectures, demonstrations, formal courses, exhibits, and preparation and publication of text materials. | NA | NA | 250 | 250 |
| *Bureau of Mines,* Coal Mine Inspection Branch.—Training program for the prevention of accidents. (B) | Instruction to mine safety committees in safe practices and interpretation of the Federal Mine Safety Code, to operating officials and others interested in accident prevention. | NA | NA | 225 | 314 |
| **INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION** | | | | | |
| In-service training to prepare employees for promotion or for more efficient service in positions which they already occupy.[23] (B) | Typical of several courses offered was one in 1946 and 1947 of 31 lectures by the head cost analyst of the Commission's Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics. In 1948 a course was offered to prepare employees for promotion to position of transport tariff examiner. Funds not identifiable.[23] | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| **DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE** | | | | | |
| *Immigration and Naturalization Service.*—Citizenship education to promote instruction and training primarily of applicants for naturalization.[24] (A) | This Service encourages citizenship instruction in public schools and has prepared about 40 printed pamphlet sections of a textbook and teacher helps, for free distribution to candidates for citizenship who are attending public school classes or classes supervised by such schools. In addition, many instructional posters are prepared and distributed. Instruction is also given in over 40 State university and college extension programs. Service personnel engage in liaison work with State and local educational units.<br>1947: 126,573 individuals either filed declarations or petitions in anticipation of citizenship. 183,000 textbooks distributed to State and local educational units. 10,000 individuals did home study through extension courses.[24] | 21 | 99 | 37 | 22 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Federal Prison System.*—Academic and nonvocational education of prisoners, for rehabilitation of prisoners. (A) | 1947: Approximately 9,300 inmates received instruction in one or more courses. Does not include limited amount for correspondence courses offered by various colleges. | E 268 | 275 | 275 | 275 |
| *Federal Prison Industries, Inc.*—Vocational training and education of prisoners, for rehabilitation of prisoners. (A) | 1947: Approximately 7,900 inmates received instruction in one or more courses. | 20 | 300 | 238 | 300 |
| *Immigration and Naturalization Service.*—In-service training of service personnel in law enforcement and other specialized service activities. (B) | Program administered and operated by this agency<br>1947: 2,375 employees received correspondence course instruction (optional) and 120 border patrol inspectors received training school instruction. | 30 | 39 | 7 | 84 |
| *Federal Bureau of Investigation.*—In-service training for special agents, in law enforcement techniques. (B) | 1947: 1,804 special agents received instruction and training | 130 | 342 | 439 | 381 |
| *Federal Bureau of Investigation.*—National Police Academy, for instruction and training in law enforcement techniques. (B) | 1947: 203 State and local enforcement officers attended Academy | 4 | 8 | 12 | 7 |
| *Federal Bureau of Investigation.*—General and specialized police training and administrative schools, in law enforcement techniques. (B) | Funds not identifiable. Federal Bureau of Investigation personnel assist local law enforcement groups in locally sponsored schools and institutes.<br>1947: 89,250 officers attended general police schools (average 2 weeks); 8,850 officers attended specialized training schools (average 1 week); 1,500 executives and officials attended police administrative schools (average 4 days). | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| **DEPARTMENT OF LABOR** | | | | | |
| *Apprentice Training Service.*—To promote agreements with labor and management for conduct of apprentice training. (A) | 1947: Average number of apprentices was 105,204. Each was supposed to have 144 hours of institutional training, usually in vocational high schools. Except for a nonpersonal service cost of $387,674, sum was expended for salaries of Federal personnel administering program in Washington and in States. Added amount available in States for promoting this program was $1,219,000, part of which came from Veterans' Administration funds. | 85 | 2,274 | 2,411 | 2,444 |
| Cooperation with American Republics program, for interne training of certain citizens of the American Republics. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: Transferred funds paid expenses and per diem of 16 trainees. Division of Labor Standards, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and Women's Bureau participated. Of 1947 total, $28,000 for administration and $35,000 for instruction.<br>1948, 1949: Bureau of Apprenticeship also participated in program. | ..... | 63 | 90 | 153 |

[38] Letter of May 6, 1948, from Interstate Commerce Commission.
[39] Letter and enclosures of May 21, 1948, from Immigration and Naturalization Service, U. S. Department of Justice.

NOTE: For Apprentice Training Service see Chapter 5.

## UNITED STATES MARITIME COMMISSION [25]

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Bureau of Training.*—Training of officers for the United States merchant fleet in merchant marine academies. (A) | Schools for training of cadet-midshipmen under a 4-year course. Cadets receive $65 per month and are furnished quarters and subsistence.<br>1947:<br>*Institution* — *Personnel* — *Trainees*<br>Kings Point Academy — 494 — 922<br>Pass Christian School — 120 — 154<br>San Mateo School — 138 — 250<br>District Cadet Supervisors — 21 — ° 489<br>° At sea. | NA | 4,835 | 3,117 | 3,230 |
| *Bureau of Training.*—State Marine Schools (Maritime Academies) operated with cooperation of Federal Government for training of cadet-midshipmen under 3- and 4-year courses. (A) | 1947:<br>*Institution* — *Trainees*<br>California Maritime Academy — 86<br>Maine Academy — 142<br>Massachusetts Academy — 169<br>New York Academy — 341<br>Pennsylvania Academy — 75<br>The 5 States contributed approximately $630,000.<br>Break-down is as follows:<br>*1947*: Pay and subsistence to cadets $839,000; Grants to States 179,000; Repair to vessels 125,000<br>*1948*: $720,000; 200,000; 200,000<br>*1949*: $1,088,000; 200,000; 200,000<br>The Pennsylvania Academy has closed. | NA | 1,143 | 1,120 | E 1,488 |
| *Bureau of Training.*—Retraining licensed personnel in United States Merchant Marine in 1- and 2-month courses to improve their skills, qualify them for advancement, and provide added skills. (B) | Officers receive $150 per month and unlicensed personnel $100 per month, and quarters and subsistence.<br>1947:<br>*Institution* — *Personnel* — *Trainees*<br>Training Station—Alameda — 82 — 535<br>Training Station—Sheepshead Bay — 267 — 3,069<br>Various small specialist schools — 333 — 1,591 | NA | 2,767 | 1,276 | E 1,275 |
| *Bureau of Training.*—Training licensed and unlicensed personnel for service in the United States Merchant Marine, basic training of inexperienced personnel under 6-month courses to become qualified unlicensed personnel of the merchant fleet. (B) | Recruits are paid $75 per month and are furnished quarters and subsistence.<br>1947:<br>*Institution* — *Personnel* — *Trainees*<br>Training Station—Alameda — 16 — 139<br>Training Station—Sheepshead Bay — 89 — 1,142<br>Training Station—St. Petersburg and ship — 187 — 1,507 | NA | 1,954 | 1,606 | E 1,585 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of Training*.—United States Maritime Service Institute correspondence and extension courses for licensed and unlicensed personnel of the merchant marine. (B). | Cost of program is entirely for staff services<br>1947: The United States Maritime Service Institute enrolled 5,157 students in 11,224 courses as of June 30, 1947. | NA | 237 | 125 | E 125 |
| *Bureau of Training*.—Training of seamen; general administration, procurement of trainees, custody of service property pending disposal, medical care. (B). | 1947<br>Break-down is as follows:<br>Head-quarters $436,000<br>Enrolling 258,000<br>Custodial 274,000<br>Medical 34,000 | NA | 1,052 | 480 | E 441 |
| **NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE FOR AERONAUTICS** | | | | | |
| Research in universities, sponsored by the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. (A) | These contracts for basic research average around $13,000 each. Projects are initiated either by technical personnel within National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics or as a result of proposals received from universities. Contracts on lump-sum basis; the only obligation of the university is to submit a satisfactory technical report as agreed upon. 1948 and 1949 figures are estimates. | NA | 230 | E 507 | E 500 |
| **NATIONAL ARCHIVES** | | | | | |
| Cooperation with American Republics program, for training of foreign interns in archival theory, processes, and techniques. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: Trainee allowance and travel paid for 3 interns from South America. Formal university instruction, if desired, is paid by intern. | ..... | 6 | 0 | 6 |
| **NATIONAL MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT** | | | | | |
| **DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE**<br>NOTE.—Department of the Air Force figures on such items as ROTC, dependent education, training, education at civilian institutions, U. S. Armed Forces Institute, etc., are incorporated in Department of the Army figures for fiscal 1940 and 1947. | | | | | |
| Research and development through contracts with universities. (A) | Includes basic and applied science studies (research) and closely associated applications to equipment, etc. (development). Sums all obligations. | NA | 3,700 | E 4,900 | E 8,760 |
| *Air University* (B) | The descriptions of the 6 activities below represent the best available determination of the first year of operation (1947) of the Air University system, and quotas are considerably lower than the planned ultimates for any school listed. | | | | |

[a] Figures prior to Sept. 1, 1942, not available as Bureau of Training activities were then under United States Coast Guard.

NOTE: For Bureau of Training, State Marine Academies see Chapter 3.

NATIONAL MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE—continued | | | | | |
| *Air War College.*—To prepare selected officers for high command and staff duty with large Air Force units; to promote sound concepts of air power. (B) | Students selected are regular Air Force officers of between 10 and 22 years commissioned service and with high efficiency ratings. *1947*: Average student load, 52; total students for year, 52; 73 instructors shared with Air Command and Staff School. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Air Command and Staff School.*—To prepare officers for command of groups and wings, and for staff duties appropriate to grades. (B) | Students are officers of between 6 and 11 years of commissioned service. 1947: Average student load, 96; total students for year, 96; see above for instructors (Air War College). | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Air Tactical School.*—To prepare officers for command of squadron and appropriate staff duties. (B) | Students are officers of between 1 and 6 years of commissioned service (etc.) 1947: Average student load, 400; total students for year, 800; 92 instructors. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Air Force Special Staff School.*—To prepare selected officers for specialized administrative and technical staff assignments at group and higher levels. (B) | Average of 6 courses of from 1 month to 18 weeks, usually in continuous operation. 1947: Average student load, 300; total students for years, 1,000; 136 instructors. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *AAF Institute of Technology (under Air University for curricular supervision only).*—To improve and maintain technical competence of Air Force. Courses in engineering science and in industrial and engineering administration, primarily on advanced undergraduate level. (B) | Open to officers normally with 2 years or more of college education 1947: Average student load, 188; estimated number of instructors, 46. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *School of Aviation Medicine.* (B) | Courses, determined by requirements of the Air Surgeon, vary from basic AME courses to senior flight surgeon courses. 1947: Average student load, 200; total students for year, 600; estimated number of instructors, 42. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY | | | | | |
| *Engineers and Quartermaster.*—Education of dependent children, to assist in providing services and facilities where required for children of both military and civilian personnel of the Army. (A) | Funds are for school construction, tuition charges for children residing on tax-exempt Federal property (except when schools make no tuition charge), for contract operation and maintenance where necessary. Varies according to circumstances and wording of appropriation acts. In addition to sums indicated, sometimes schools are built on posts out of over-all post funds. Coordinated with joint Army, Navy, Air Force board, Department of State, and United States Office of Education. 1947: 2,863 pupils, 106 teachers, 9 installations; majority of expenditure overseas. | NA | 669 | 2,673 | 2,244 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Civil Affairs Division, Occupied Areas.*—Education of dependents, operation and maintenance of elementary and secondary schools for American children of military and civilian Army personnel in occupied areas. (A) | 1948: Public Law 267, 80th Cong., 1st sess., made general provision for elementary and secondary schooling for dependents not to exceed $100 per child. Largest single item was $1,992,000 for construction overseas. Nonappropriated funds (tuition against parents, etc.) estimated at $207,000 in Zone of Interior and United States possessions, and $334,000 in overseas areas other than occupied, totaling $541,000 not covered by 1948 authorization. 12,725 pupils.<br>1949: Maximum amount authorized per child was raised to $120 effective fiscal 1949. | ---------- | 0 | 1,125 | [25] 2,874 |
| *Corps of Engineers.*—Education of dependent children of military and civilian personnel at schools on projects under the Flood Control Act, to provide education where public school facilities are not available or adequate. (A) | 1948: 8,420 children involved, $683,000 in nonappropriated funds were used to supplement the amount of appropriated funds in fiscal 1948. Sources were benefits, drives, and assessments against parents.<br>1949: 12,887 estimated number children involved. Estimated that $100,000 in nonappropriated funds needed. | ---------- | NA | 445 | NA |
| *Corps of Engineers.*—Education of dependent children of military and civilian personnel at schools on projects under the Rivers and Harbors Act. (A) | Funds are expended to operate schools; to contract for facilities, services, supplies, etc.; or for tuition payments to public schools.<br>1948: Projects in Arkansas, Oregon, South Dakota, North Dakota, and Nebraska. | ---------- | NA | NA | NA |
| (Combined report for several departments etc.). Contracts placed with universities and university research foundations for Army research and development. (A) | See immediately above<br>1948: For Columbia River, Oreg., $70,000 was available. Other sums cannot be estimated.<br>Includes basic and applied science studies (research) and closely associated applications to equipment, etc. (development).<br>Break-down as follows (including research and development): | NA | 11,198 | 15,400 | E 16,000 |

| *Department, etc.* | *1947* | *1948 (see note)* | *1949 (estimate)* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Army Security Agency | $80,300 | ---------- | ---------- |
| Signal Corps | 585,198 | $100,000 | $260,000 |
| Chemical Corps | 972,190 | 300,000 | 350,000 |
| Ordnance Department | 6,502,803 | 12,800,000 | 12,800,000 |
| Medical Department | 1,509,359 | 1,200,000 | 1,400,000 |
| Quartermaster Corps | 1,106,289 | 780,000 | 900,000 |
| Corps of Engineers | 442,086 | 200,000 | 250,000 |
| Transportation Corps | ---------- | 20,000 | 40,000 |
| Total research | 8,226,919 | 10,136,000 | 10,694,000 |
| Total development | 2,971,306 | 5,264,000 | 5,306,000 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1940: Record not available, but amount very small.<br>1948: Figures derived from actual obligations for first three-quarters of year and estimate for final quarter.<br>1949: Figures are estimates only. | | | | |
| *Organization and Training Division.*—Training of military personnel in civilian institutions as an augmentation of training in service schools. (A) | Contracts are made with accredited educational institutions and other civilian agencies at current tuition rates.<br>1947: 1,321 students (450 in long courses, 476 in short courses, 395 carried over from fiscal 1946). Sum for tuition costs of first 2 groups only (926). | NA | 659 | 905 | 915 |

[25] A cut may be necessary, since funds in the entire appropriation for administration were cut from $62,000,000 to $55,000,000.

NOTE: See Chapter 5 for: Engineers and Quartermaster; Civil Affairs Division, Occupied Areas; and Corps of Engineers.

NATIONAL MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY—continued | | | | | |
| *The Adjutant General's Office.*—Reserve Officers' Training Corps, to qualify students for positions of leadership in time of national emergency. (A) | Operated in selected secondary schools, colleges, and universities. Travel and other expenditures of military personnel on Reserve Officers' Training Corps duty, maintenance of buildings and procurement of military equipment, not included in figures. Air Force Reserve Officers' Training Corps is included in these figures (but will be separated after fiscal 1949). 1947: Average enrollment was 10,696 in advanced courses; 40,612 in basic courses; and 61,301 juniors, 383 senior units, and 115 junior units at 283 institutions. Also 13,005 students at 54 sect. 55c schools. On Reserve Officers' Training Corps duty were 1,100 officers and 1,622 enlisted men. | 4,568 | 15,073 | 22,025 | 21,175 |
| | Break-down is as follows: | | | | |
| | Pay, etc., of Reserve Officers' Training Corps students | | $7,392,777 | | |
| | Pay of civilian employees | | 23,931 | | |
| | Supplies (procurement, transportation, etc.) | | 7,427,867 | | |
| | Printing and binding | | 5,508 | | |
| | Miscellaneous operating expense | | 222,811 | | |
| *United States Military Academy.*—Training of cadets so that each graduate shall have attributes necessary to continued development throughout a lifetime career in the Regular Army. (A) | The above includes expenditures both at institutions and at summer training camps. 1947: 2,016 cadets taught. Overhead includes 1,280 civilians, 457 officers, 7 warrant officers, and 1,176 enlisted men. Break-down is as follows: | 3,349 | 7,144 | 7,657 | 7,575 |
| | Pay of cadets | | $1,572,000 | | |
| | Maintenance | | 2,208,000 | | |
| | Maintenance of Stewart Field | | 681,000 | | |
| | Operations | | 2,682,000 | | |
| *Special Staff.*—Troop Information and Education. Army education program, including U. S. Armed Forces Institute and class instruction, to raise the educational level of the military personnel. Includes self-study, classes at posts and camps, and attendance at nearby civilian schools and colleges. In connection with the latter, Army pays 75 percent of tuition costs, student paying 25 percent plus incidental expenses and fees.[27] (A) | This program, with formal agreement with Navy (including Marine Corps) and fiscal agreement with U. S. Coast Guard for utilization of services, is devoted to instruction in subjects taught in civilian academic and vocational institutions. 1947: 155,000 U. S. Armed Forces Institute enrollees both overseas and in zone of interior. 28,000 enrollees in zone of interior and 37,000 overseas in class instruction. Break-down is as follows: | ---------- | 2,973 | 2,377 | 4,025 |

| *Item* | *1947* | *1948* | *1949* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Supplies and materials | $370,000 | $420,000 | $1,176,000 |
| Personnel, zone of interior | 450,000 | 500,000 | 518,000 |
| Instructors, o/s | 1,708,000 | 547,000 | 997,000 |
| Administrative and technical personnel, o/s | 300,000 | 450,000 | 601,000 |
| Incidental expenses, textbooks U. S. Armed Forces Institute | 141,000 | 450,000 | 722,000 |
| Printing and binding | 4,000 | 10,000 | 11,000 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **In-service training of Army personnel.** (B) | 1948: Over 5,000 Army and Air Force personnel qualifying for high school completion each month. Over 220,000 actively participating in some phase of program in May 1948. 10,000 new enrollments each month.<br>1949: Increases over 1948 necessary to meet the demand for educational opportunities in the expanded Army.<br>1947: Approximately 80,000 resident students enrolled in 38 service schools; 24,483 students enrolled in extension courses from 16 service schools; approximately 3,230 officers and 9,780 enlisted men instructed or administered programs. Air Force personnel enrolled in Air Force Training Command schools not included. The 80,000 includes personnel from Regular Army, Organized Reserve Corps, National Guard, U. S. Air Force (except as indicated above), Navy, and foreign nationals. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Civil Affairs Division, SSUSA.*—Reeducation and reorientation of peoples in liberated and occupied areas controlled by American military government. (B) | Sums do not indicate total cost of program as pay of foreign civilians employed by American military government staff in this program, certain incidental operating expenses, and certain items of service, supplies, and equipment used are obtained without dollar cost from the national economy of the areas concerned.<br>1947: Following are population statistics for liberated and occupied areas:<br>United States zone of Germany ..... 18,750,000<br>Austria ..... 1,780,000<br>Japan and Ryukyus ..... 77,700,000<br>Korea ..... 18,800,000 | ..... | 3,540 | 12,799 | [37] 14,064 |
| **DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY** | | | | | |
| *Bureau of Aeronautics.*—Education of dependent children at isolated Naval Air activities. (A) | Agreements or contracts are made with local boards of education which assume pro rata share of costs.<br>1947: 350 children of Naval personnel or Navy civil-service employees provided education. Salaries for teachers, $14,000; school supplies, $2,000.<br>1948: Provision made for educating some 475 children.<br>1949: Provision made for educating some 885 children. | NA | 16 | 36 | 55 |
| *Bureau of Ordnance.*—Education of dependent children where schools would otherwise be unavailable. (A) | Agreements are made with State, county, or local schools for elementary and secondary facilities, largely on stations.<br>1940: Schools at 2 stations.<br>1947: Schools at 4 stations for an estimated 2,386 pupils living in naval housing (and 983 from surrounding area). | 53 | 180 | 323 | 350 |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—Contribution to support of schools in localities where naval activities are located when these schools are inadequate for welfare of children of Navy personnel. (A) | 1940: Appropriation for "Schools for children of naval personnel at naval stations, Guam, Samoa, and Guantanamo Bay."<br>1947: 10 schools outside United States with 665 pupils, some schools being helped only during last quarter of fiscal 1947. | 4 | 16 | 75 | 249 |
| *U. S. Marine Corps.*—Post schools to provide elementary and secondary schooling to dependent children of Marine Corps personnel where no State-operated schools are located. (A). | Schools are operated by Marine Corps<br>1947: Schools operated at 3 posts, enrolling 980 pupils and with 56 teachers. Sum covers only pay of teachers and purchase of supplies.<br>1948, 1949: Between 1,100 and 1,200 pupils with 57 teachers. | 31 | 217 | 254 | 254 |

[37] Letter and enclosures of May 12, 1948, from Chief, Army Education Branch, T. I. and E. Division.
[38] 1949 sum is merely that submitted as budget estimate.

NOTE: For Special Staff see Chapter 7. For Bureaus of Aeronautics, Ordnance, and Naval Personnel; and for U. S. Marine Corps see Chapter 5.

## NATIONAL MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| **DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY—continued** | | | | | |
| (Combined report for several bureaus, etc.) Research and development. Obligations in universities (contract research). (A) | Includes basic and applied science studies (research) and closely associated applications to equipment, etc., (development) done through contracts with universities. Break-down is as follows (including research and development): | NA | 24,957 | E 25,643 | E 26,311 |

| *Bureau* | *1947, actual* | *1948, estimate* | *1949, estimate* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Medicine and Surgery | $147,935 | $454,000 | $224,000 |
| Ships | 6,344,000 | 1,350,000 | 550,000 |
| Aeronautics | 726,010 | 702,000 | 1,103,000 |
| Yards and Docks | 120,000 | 76,700 | 135,300 |
| Ordnance | 10,607,989 | 12,127,500 | 11,959,000 |
| Office of Naval Research | 17,010,644 | 10,932,357 | 14,339,829 |
| Total, Research | $18,449,149 | $12,493,607 | $14,966,129 |
| Total, Development | 16,507,429 | 13,148,950 | 13,345,000 |

*Office of Naval Research.*—In-service program for naval scientific and engineering personnel through university-sponsored and accredited courses, primarily at graduate level, offered at Naval establishments. (A)

1946: Record not available, but amount very small.
No Federal funds involved, as employees pay regular tuition fees
1947: 1,487 personnel enrolled in 61 courses. 40 of these courses, enrolling 896, were sponsored by the University of Maryland. 21 courses, enrolling 591, were sponsored by the U. S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School.
1948, 1949: Program has expanded.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ---------- | 0 | 0 | 0 |

*Office of Naval Research.*—In-service course for naval scientific personnel in jet propulsion and allied areas. (A)

The University of Maryland offers this course under contract with the Navy. Graduate credit offered. Course 3 semesters in length.
1947: 128 naval personnel enrolled, from 9 naval agencies.
1948, 1949: Of 3 classes organized, last will end in June of 1949. Funds previously appropriated cover these. No further classes will be organized.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ---------- | 9 | 0 | 0 |

*Office of Naval Research.*—Program to help assure naval and other governmental agencies of a supply of competent men as trained directors and operators of high digital computing devices. (A)

Under contract with Harvard University, which pays staff salaries and participates in administrative and overhead costs.
1947: 7 persons attended from Navy, 2 from Army, also a number from Harvard.
1948: Project completed in 1948; no additional funds required.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ---------- | 25 | 0 | ---------- |

*Bureau of Medicine and Surgery.*—In-service postgraduate instruction of Medical Department military personnel in civilian institutions, to aid in upholding professional standards of naval medical and dental care. (A)

Formal contracts are made with various accredited teaching institutions and hospitals throughout the United States, based on established fees for services required.
1947: 325 naval personnel took 360 courses covering full range of postgraduate studies in specialties of medicine, surgery, dentistry, nursing, and hospital administration.
1948, 1949: Substantial increase in courses.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 50 | 148 | 217 | 360 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps, NACP, and 5-term college training program, to train officer candidates and to provide Academic background for transferred officers. (A) | Contracts are made with participating colleges and universities on basis of current tuition rates of the institutions, by Bureau of Supplies and Accounts. Students, as recipients of subsidized education, are obligated to serve in Navy or Naval Reserve.<br>1947: Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps—52 civilian colleges, 5,015 students. NACP—750 civilian colleges, 3,697 students. Five-Term Program—49 civilian colleges, 710 students.<br>Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — *1947* — *1948* — *1949*<br>NROTC students — $5,172,000 — $5,600,000 — $6,978,000<br>NACP students — 2,488,000 — 2,267,000 — 260,000<br>5-term students — 394,000 — 474,200 — 400,000 | NA | 8,054 | 8,341 | 7,638 |
| *U. S. Marine Corps.*—In-service officers' postgraduate schooling at colleges and universities, to provide selected officers with advanced training in fields for which no adequate service schools are available. (A) | Moneys go to selected colleges and universities to meet cost of tuition for individual officers. Officers must agree to serve at least 3 years after graduation.<br>1947: 31 officers were assigned to colleges and universities for instruction in personnel administration, law, ordnance engineering, electrical engineering.<br>1948: 33 students.<br>1949: 41 students anticipated. | NA | 32 | 32 | 33 |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—United States Naval Academy, for training of officer candidates. (A) | 1947: One institution, 2,608 students, 494 instructors, 3,152 support. Instructors include 185 civilians; support includes 1,725 civilians.<br>Breakdown is as follows:<br>Direct training and instruction — $1,238,000<br>Operation — 1,266,000<br>Housekeeping — 460,000<br>Fire and police protection — 308,000<br>Repair, alteration, and improvement — 1,111,000<br>Administration — 185,000<br>Care of ship models — 2,000<br>(Figures exclude military pay.) | 2,080 | 4,573 | 4,614 | 5,020 |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—Educational services, including U. S. Armed Forces Institute, to provide academic educational opportunities to personnel (A) | Although Army, through U. S. Armed Forces Institute, is partially the spending agency, this sum does not appear in Army U. S. Armed Forces Institute account. This phase of program provided educational courses and materials not covered by U. S. Armed Forces Institute curriculum for entire Navy.<br>1947: Weekly information and educational material distributed to 1,400 ships and stations. 200,000 pamphlets distributed. | ---------- | 699 | 594 | 663 |
| *U. S. Marine Corps.*—Marine Corps Institute, to provide nonmilitary schooling in general educational subjects on a voluntary basis to men of the Regular Marine Corps. (A) | The Marine Corps is the operating agency<br>1947: Enrolled 31,413 with 9 officers and 126 enlisted men as instructors.<br>Breakdown is as follows:<br>Salaries — $14,000<br>Text materials, etc — 138,000 | 20 | 152 | 160 | 180 |
| *U. S. Marine Corps.*—Educational services, through U. S. Armed Forces Institute, to provide technical schooling on general educational subjects on a voluntary basis. (A) | Although Army, through U. S. Armed Forces Institute, is the spending agency, this sum does not appear in Army U. S. Armed Forces Institute account.<br>1947: Approximately 8,000 men participated in this program. | ---------- | 1 | 1 | 1 |

NOTE: For Bureau of Naval Personnel see Chapter 6.

## NATIONAL MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY—continued | | | | | |
| *Office of Chief of Naval Operations.*—Education of natives in areas under Navy administration; to provide training in teaching, medicine, dentistry, public health practices, nursing, agriculture, and mechanical trades, and also elementary and high school system in Trust Territory and on the Island of Guam, for the purpose of developing the capacity of natives for democratic self-government. (A) | Recipient local governments bear the share of the expense of public education which is considered within their ability to support from local revenues. Sums indicated are for education from larger sums devoted to administration of island governments.<br>1947: *Schools* / *Teachers* / *Students*<br>Elementary schools: 140 / 460 / 20,000<br>Secondary schools: 1 / 30 / 1,050<br>Teacher training schools: 6 / 430<br>Medical assistant training schools: 1 / 61<br>Dental assistant training schools: 1 / 15<br>Nursing training schools: 1 / 77 | NA | NA | 537 | 400 |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—Postgraduate School, to provide advanced education in technical and professional subjects. (A) and (B) | Funds allocated on basis of tuition rates of various civilian institutions participating in the program and amount agreed by contract and costs of operation of the United States Naval Postgraduate School.<br>1947: 28 institutions, 1,569 students, 184 instructors, and 158 support. Institutions include 24 civilian colleges; students include 557 at General Line School, 482 at civilian colleges, and 92 from other services; instructors include 117 civilians; operating forces include 48 civilians.<br>Break-down is as follows:<br>Contractors (tuition) $293,000<br>Personal services 410,000<br>Supplies, etc. 71,000 | 218 | 774 | 829 | 937 |
| *Bureau of Ships.*—In-service informal field training to improve the effectiveness of scientific and technical employees on their assigned work and to encourage professional advancement. (A) and (B). | In naval shipyards a variety of instructional courses are sponsored from time to time, generally in cooperation with local colleges or universities and during nonworking hours. No Federal funds involved as in most instances tuition is paid by participants, Navy furnishing facilities only. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Medicine and Surgery.*—In-service instruction of Medical Department military personnel in naval hospitals and Medical Department schools to aid in upholding professional standards of naval medical and dental care. (B) | Training funds are not identifiable from operations<br>1947: 7 Medical Department schools enrolled 1,041 students; 8 naval hospitals enrolled 68 internes and 156 residents. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Aeronautics.*—In-service technical training in aircraft operation and maintenance. (B) | 1947: 20 technical training schools graduated approximately 13,000 students and required an average of 131 civilian employees as instructors and clerks. Training funds not identifiable from operations at the 6 naval air shore establishments where these schools are located. | NA | NA | NA | NA |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—In-service training in special Navy schools for professional training in special subjects. (B) | 1947: 17 naval schools, 3,334 students (including 278 from other services), 111 instructors, 309 support. Funds not identifiable as training merges with operations. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—In-service training in enlisted, functional, and fleet schools, for elementary, technical, and team training for officers and enlisted and recruit training. (B) | 1947: 69 naval schools, 131,886 students (including 1,442 from other services), 1,000 instructors, 1,218 support. Funds not identifiable as training merges with operations. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—In-service naval air technical training schools, to give aviation technical training to naval personnel, both officer and enlisted. (B) | 1947: 34 naval schools, 18,301 students, 1,977 instructors, 2,774 support. Instructors include 102 civilians. Funds not identifiable as training merges with operations. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Naval Personnel.*—In-service command and staff colleges, to train officers for high command and staff duties. (B) | 1947: 4 naval colleges, 449 students, 76 instructors, 217 support. Included Naval War College and 3 joint colleges. Students included 282 from other services. Funds not identifiable as training merges with operations. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Bureau of Ships.*—In-service departmental training, for indoctrination training for clerical and technical employees, supervisory training, and special training peculiar to the needs of the Bureau, such as specification writing, correspondence techniques, etc. (B) | 1947: Funds not identifiable. Sum of enrollments in each course 1,502 | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Office of Industrial Relations.*—Work Improvement Program for in-service naval civilian personnel, to raise operating efficiency through adequate development of employees. (B) | 1947: In July 1947, the following were in training in field activities:<br>13,314 supervisors, at all naval field activities employing more than 300 civilians.<br>287 instructors, at 19 naval field activities.<br>4,433 apprentices, at 29 naval field activities in 35 metal and woodworking trades.<br>3,909 on-the-job trainees, at 41 naval field activities. | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| *Office of Naval Research.*—In-service Naval Research Laboratory scientific training program given under "University study program for Navy scientific and engineering personnel in the Washington area." (B) | 1947: Approximately 700 employees. Break-down is as follows:<br>Apprentice ..... $22,000<br>Artisan ..... 2,000<br>Clerical ..... 2,000<br>Indoctrination ..... 2,000<br>Shop supervision ..... 3,000 | NA | 31 | NA | NA |
| *U. S. Marine Corps.*—In-service military schools, to provide basic, technical, and specialist training for officers and men of the Marine Corps as required to fill jobs. (B) | Funds not identifiable as training and operations merge. 1947: | NA | NA | NA | NA |

| | Students | Instructors | Overhead: Officers | Overhead: Enlisted men |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Recruit training | 36,181 | 216 | 87 | 1,183 |
| Enlisted training | 3,086 | 77 | 57 | 718 |
| Officer training | 469 | 52 | 187 | 1,211 |

THE PANAMA CANAL

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Executive Department*, Schools Division. Operation of schools. (A) | Schools, under jurisdiction of Governor of Panama Canal Zone, are free to children of Federal employees, etc., but nonemployee aliens pay tuition.<br>1947: Enrollment was as follows:<br>Day:<br>White college 209<br>Colored normal 80<br>White, grades 1–12 3,824<br>Colored, grades 1–12 2,872<br>Night school:<br>White 325<br>Colored 117<br>Total 7,427<br>Tuition receipts, $100,535.<br>1948, 1949: Sums include about $90,000 from tuition, etc., for each year. | 483 | 1,073 | 1,136 | 1,327 |
| **RAILROAD RETIREMENT BOARD** | | | | | |
| In-service training of Board employees for processing activities under its jurisdiction. (B) | 1947: 668 Board employees trained. Break-down is as follows:<br>Railroad retirement program $35,000<br>Railroad unemployment insurance program 59,000 | NA | 94 | 44 | 46 |
| **SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION** | | | | | |
| Cooperation with American Republics program, for instruction and research in anthropology, primarily through Institute of Social Anthropology. (A) and (B). | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: 8 teachers stationed in 4 Latin-American universities taught a total of 150 students. 15 students given graduate field training. 3 monographs and large 2-volume Handbook of South American Indians published. Foreign sources contributed an added $56,000 to program. | ---------- | 140 | 94 | 114 |
| *National Gallery of Art.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for education through art exhibitions in American Republics. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State<br>1947: 7 exhibitions circulated in Latin-American republics.<br>1948: Program in process of liquidation. | ---------- | 22 | 6 | ---------- |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Division of Libraries and Institutes.*—Assistance to American schools in Latin-American countries, through contract with the American Council on Education. (A) | Funds are granted to bi-national American-sponsored schools in Latin America.<br>1947: Educational materials and professional services provided to 270 schools, enrolling 60,000 children of whom 5,000 were children of United States citizens. 14 schools received cash grants of $170,644 for payment of all or part of salaries of 52 United States teachers and principals. The 270 schools received $3,158,000 from local sources.<br>1948: Approximately $4,446,000 received from local sources. | NA | 209 | 171 | 171 |
| *Foreign Service Institute.*—Assignment of Foreign Service officers to selected universities for special training in economics, language, and area studies. (A) | Universities receive tuition funds by contract.<br>1947: About 20 Foreign Service officers received per diem and/or tuition while attending universities in United States for from 3 to 9 months. | 0 | 17 | 71 | 71 |
| *International Exchange of Persons.*—Cooperation with American Republics program for interchange of students between the United States and other American Republics, and contracts to facilitate program. (A) | Funds from "Cooperation with American Republics" allotted to this program, cover travel and maintenance to United States students, travel to students of other American Republics, contracts with nonprofit institutions and universities in the United States.<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Grants to United States students $25,000<br>Grants to foreign students and trainees 124,000<br>Contracts with Institute of International Education:<br>(*a*) Maintenance, study, guidance, etc., of foreign students. 220,667<br>(*b*) Administration of trainee program of foreign students. 46,136<br>Contracts with National Education Association for English teaching and orientation for foreign students 21,000<br>Contracts with 5 colleges or universities 12,500<br>84 students, 50 trainees. | ---------- | 449 | [29] | [29] |
| *International Exchange of Persons.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for interchange of professors between United States and other American Republics. (A) | Funds from "Cooperation with American Republics" allotted to this program. United States professors assigned to foreign universities and foreign professors assigned to United States universities, with program paying travel expenses and compensation.<br>1947: 42 professors exchanged and 1 contract with Texas State College for operation of an English center at Saltillo. | ---------- | 149 | [30] 195 | [30] 196 |
| *International Exchange of Persons.*—Fulbright program, including administration, grant to National Academy of Sciences for screening of applicants, and Institute of International Education (A) | The Fulbright program is a new approach, using United States surplus property credits in foreign countries for exchange of persons from and to those countries. Persons from foreign countries attend higher institutions in the United States.<br>Break-down is as follows:<br>*Item* — *1948* — *1949*<br>Grants to National Academy of Science ---------- $51,000<br>Institute of International Education ---------- 70,000<br>Administration (personal services) $19,000 110,000 | ---------- | ---------- | 19 | 231 |
| *International Exchange of Persons.*—Administration of Cooperation with American Republics programs for interchange of students, professors, and nongovernment specialists and distinguished leaders (A) and (B) | Sums are estimates of administrative costs | ---------- | E 189 | E 37 | E 38 |

[29] 1948, 1949: See Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, to which program was transferred beginning fiscal year 1948.
[30] 1948, 1949: Also includes interchange of specialists and leaders.

NOTE: For Executive Department, Schools Division see Chapter 5.

## DEPARTMENT OF STATE—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Foreign Service Institute.*—Conduct of in-service training programs in foreign posts and Foreign Service Institute. (B) | 1947: 952 students received from 1 week to 5 months tutorial language in Foreign Service Institute. 27 Foreign Service officers received from 3 to 12 months' training in field installations.<br>1948, 1949: New language programs opened in foreign posts. Course offerings at Foreign Service Institute expanded to meet increased foreign service training requirements. | 0 | 109 | 199 | 228 |
| *International Exchange of Persons.*—Cooperation with American Republics program, for interchange of nongovernment specialists and distinguished leaders between the United States and other American Republics. (B) | Interchanges are made to and from other American Republics. For grants to individuals, paying travel expenses, and in some cases compensation and living allowances.<br>1947: 69 specialists were exchanged. | ---------- | 114 | (31) | (31) |
| *UNESCO Relations Staff.*—Salaries and other expenses of this staff in Department of State, for promotion of collaboration among nations through education, science, and culture. (B) | ---------- | ---------- | 313 | 312 | 347 |
| *UNESCO.*—United States contribution to United Nations for UNESCO, for promotion of collaboration among nations through education, science, and culture. (B) | These sums are estimated only, as UNESCO support comes from United Nations and its budget is by calendar year.<br>1948, 1949: Sums include United States contributions to UNESCO Revolving Fund, of $440,000 and $419,000, respectively. | ---------- | E 1,530 | E 3,500 | E 3,636 |
| *Division of Libraries and Institutes.*—Assistance to United States cultural centers (foreign bi-national cultural societies), to contribute toward better mutual understanding among peoples. (B) | 1947: Assistance given to 27 cultural centers, 20 branches thereof, and 2 English-teaching programs. 37,905 adult students of English. Cultural programs to 144,000 persons. American publications circulated to 160,752 persons. 69 United States teachers and administrators on grant and 300 other local employees on staffs of centers. 56 percent of cost financed locally abroad. | 0 | 630 | 476 | 462 |
| *Division of Libraries and Institutes*—Providing abroad of information and materials on education in the United States. (B) | 1947: 600,000 free items furnished and 600 special educational materials projects completed serving some 300 educational reference collections at American Foreign Service posts. An added 500 foreign inquiries regarding American education answered by information and materials. | 0 | 10 | 16 | 10 |

## U. S. TARIFF COMMISSION

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cooperation with American Republics program, to facilitate and encourage the international exchange of students. (B) | Funds transferred from Department of State and used to pay travel and subsistence while in training.<br>1947: 6 foreign students, 3 of whom were in transit to United States at close of fiscal year, were given training in the Tariff Commission. | ---------- | 8 | 0 | 7 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOTE.—Due to change in accounting system, 1940 obligations not readily available, but all programs were substantially the same as in 1947, although possibly 25 percent to 30 percent below obligations for 1947. No significant change in activities between 1947, 1948, and 1949, except that sums available for 1948 and 1949 estimated to be somewhat below 1947.[31] | | | | | |
| *Dam and reservoir construction.*—To provide supplemental educational facilities at construction camps and employee villages where local facilities are unavailable or inadequate; to provide extension services for agricultural readjustment of families being relocated due to construction of Tennessee Valley Authority dams. (A) | 1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Educational expenses at villages and camps ..... $84,005<br>Agricultural readjustment ..... 12,963 | NA | 97 | NA | NA |
| *Agricultural Resource Development.*—For practical farm test-demonstrations and preliminary soil and fertilizer investigations, soil surveys; for research on fertilizer distribution methods; for development and demonstration of farm equipment; for development of food processing methods. (A) | Payments are made to college extension services and experiment stations which supervise program.<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Fertilizer distribution and relations with rural organizations .. $16,142<br>Test-demonstration supervision ..... 636,042<br>Soil and fertilizer investigations ..... 126,101<br>Soil inventory and mapping ..... 52,668<br>Development and demonstration of farm equipment ..... 28,089<br>Development of processes and markets for agricultural products ..... 16,142 | NA | 875 | NA | NA |
| *Forest resource development.*—For joint conduct of farm forestry projects and research on methods of wood utilization. (A) | Payments are made to State educational institutions<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Assistance in forest management and reforestation. ..... $12,776<br>Development of processes and markets for forest products .... 4,157 | NA | 17 | NA | NA |
| *Mineral resources development.*—For field surveys of Valley minerals; testing and appraisal of mineral samples. (A) | Payments to Valley State educational institutions | NA | 17 | NA | NA |
| *Stream sanitation and public health.*—For stream sanitation investigations and cooperative laboratory research in industrial hygiene and malaria. (A) | Payments to Valley State educational institutions<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Stream sanitation investigations ..... $2,805<br>Public health studies and assistance ..... 20,533 | NA | 23 | NA | NA |
| Special studies and activities concerning administration of natural resources, local governmental problems, industrial economic problems, and a survey of library resources of the Valley. (A) | Payments to Valley State educational institutions<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Transportation and industrial economic studies ..... $5,396<br>Advisory assistance to State and local governments ..... 6,023<br>Studies of resource development methods and opportunities... 12,500 | NA | 24 | NA | NA |
| *Educational Relationships.*—To assist various Tennessee Valley Authority divisions in maintaining relations with educational agencies and in providing, upon request, technical data and research results. (A) | Small central staff and 4 area education officers conduct program | NA | 82 | NA | NA |
| *Employees Training.*—Provides coordination and guidance to in-service training activities, including apprentice programs and orientation of new clerical employees. (B) | ---------- | NA | 61 | NA | NA |

[31] 1948, 1949: Sums are included in interchange of professors activity above.

[32] Letter of June 14, 1948, from Chief Budget Office, Tennessee Valley Authority.

NOTE: For dam and reservoir construction see Chapter 5.

## DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *U. S. Savings Bonds Division.*—School Savings program, to encourage the regular purchase of savings bonds and stamps at schools, by teaching thrift, domestic budgeting, and general good money management. (A) | Program attempts to weave the idea of thrift, with the end purpose of selling savings bonds and stamps, into school courses in arithmetic, mathematics, home economics, civics, etc. Stresses responsibility of citizenship and proper management of national debt.<br>1947: 996,100 copies of teacher handbooks, student workbooks, song sheets, etc., distributed. In addition: School Savings Journal (16 pp.) issued to 165,434 schools semiannually; Copy Desk release to 530 educational magazines 5 times a year; and High-School Clipsheet release to 10,000 high school papers 6 times a year. | NA | 200 | 226 | 251 |
| *U. S. Coast Guard.*—Coast Guard Academy, New London, Conn., for cadet training. (A) | Sums include pay and allowances of cadets<br>1947: An average of 275 cadets in training. Break-down is as follows for years indicated:<br>*1947* *1948* *1949*<br>Cadet pay and allowances..... $314,200 $443,900 $522,100<br>Instruction..... 294,000 918,600 938,000<br>Maintenance..... 622,000 196,100 206,100 | 606 | 1,230 | 1,559 | 1,666 |
| *U. S. Coast Guard.*—Graduate study for officers in postgraduate and graduate civilian universities and Navy schools. (A) and (B) | 1947: 17 officers trained at civilian institutions and 26 at service schools. Sums are for tuition and reimbursement to Navy. | 8 | 18 | 20 | 32 |
| *U. S. Coast Guard.*—Training Station, Groton, Conn. Correspondence courses for enlisted men (including material from U. S. Armed Forces Institute). Also some recruit and advanced training of enlisted men included. (A) and (B) | 1947: Received correspondence courses..... 4,315<br>Received recruit training..... 2,563<br>Received advanced training..... 2,588 | NA | 23 | 50 | 71 |
| *U. S. Coast Guard.*—In-service aviation training for Coast Guard officers. (B) | 1947: 27 officers detailed to a year of training at Navy air training facilities | 185 | 69 | 84 | 108 |
| *Co-Ordinator of Enforcement Agencies.*—In-service training of employees in criminal and enforcement law and marksmanship. (B) | 1947: 410 trained in criminal and enforcement law; 1,713 in marksmanship | 13 | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| *Bureau of Internal Revenue.*—In-service training of employees in income tax law, tax administration, and related fields. (B) | Classes and correspondence courses available to all employees, departmental and field, within the Bureau.<br>1947: Classes of 60 days' duration attended by 343 employees. 27,614 average monthly enrollment in correspondence courses, for which 377,142 papers were graded. 40 employees in Training Division. In addition, $6,200 is included for training by Alcohol Tax Unit which conducted 13 classes in the field for 90 employees.<br>1948, 1949: Alcohol Tax Unit had no funds for this purpose. | 84 | 183 | 174 | 174 |
| *Bureau of Customs.*—In-service training of customs inspectors and port patrol officers. Operated only by New York field office. (B) | 1947: 152 persons trained and an added 832 trained in use of firearms. | 8 | 11 | 11 | 11 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Department of Medicine and Surgery.*—Formal classes, lectures, seminars, and research projects to provide a residency training program in Veterans' Administration hospitals, to increase professional knowledge or technical training of other medical and hospital personnel for the improvement of medical care of veterans. Operated through universities, colleges, and private institutions. (A) | Allocations of funds determined by nature and number of research projects contracted for and persons for whom tuition is to be paid at amount agreed upon by contract between agency and the contracting institution.<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Education.....$122,000<br>Research.....1,188,000<br>750 employees enrolled in regular college courses; 9 research projects at 9 universities and private institutions.<br>1948, 1949: Statistics are as follows:<br>*Item* — *1948* — *1949*<br>Employees enrolled in college courses — 1,905 — 4,530<br>Number of research projects by contract — 18 — 29<br>Funds available for education — $1,400,000 — $2,200,000<br>Funds available for research — 1,600,000 — 1,413,000 | NA | 1,310 | 3,000 | 3,613 |
| *Office of Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education.*—Education and training benefits provided under Servicemen's Re-adjustment Act (Public Law 346 and amendments), to aid returning World War II veterans in their readjustment to civilian life. (A) | 1947: Average number of veterans enrolled in schools of higher learning, 815,707; in other schools, 400,734; on-farm training, 95,000 (estimated); on-the-job training, 566,988; total, 1,878,429. Probably above 20 percent of total veterans enrollment in all courses are in below-college level profit schools. Break-down is as follows:<br>Subsistence allowances.....$1,550,965,000<br>Tuition and fees.....496,245,000<br>Supplies.....10,913,000<br>Equipment.....60,696,000<br>Subsistence paid directly to veterans; remainder to educational institutions.<br>1948, 1949: Sums do not constitute limits on expenditures required by law. On April 30, 1948, there were a total of 2,450,925 veterans in training. Revised *unofficial* estimates in June 1948 indicate expenditures for 1948 as a little less and for 1949 somewhat more than sums indicated. | ..... | 2,118,819 | 2,610,854 | 2,059,880 |
| *Office of Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education.*—Vocational rehabilitation benefits for disabled veterans (Public Law 16 and amendments) for vocational rehabilitation of World War II veterans with service-connected disabilities rated 10 percent or more. (A) | 1947: Average number of veterans enrolled in schools of higher learning, 60,944; in other schools, 26,241; on-farm training, 8,150; on-the-job training, 79,130; total, 174,465. Break-down is as follows:<br>Subsistence allowances.....$190,942,000<br>Tuition and fees.....24,359,000<br>Supplies.....767,000<br>Equipment.....4,852,000<br>Subsistence paid directly to veteran; remainder to educational institutions.<br>1948, 1949: Sums do not constitute limits on expenditures required by law. On April 30, 1948, there were a total of 252,386 veterans in training, of which 40,664 were classified as seriously handicapped. Revised *unofficial* estimates in June 1948 indicate expenditures for both 1948 and 1949 slightly under sums indicated. | ..... | 220,920 | 329,455 | 297,098 |

NOTE: For Office of Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education see Chapter 7.

VETERANS ADMINISTRATION—Continued

[In thousands of dollars]

| Subagency, activity, and purpose | Explanation and description | Obligated | | Available | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| *Office of Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education.*—Administration of programs of Public Law 346 and Public Law 16. (A) | 1947: In addition to statistics re these programs presented above, 331,243 cases were counseled under Public Law 16 and 269,793 under Public Law 346; total counseled, 601,036. Break-down is as follows (this does not include pro rata share of operating overhead and servicing departments within the Veterans' Administration):<br>Personal services $87,832,000<br>Employee travel 2,168,000<br>Beneficiary travel 681,000<br>Counseling (Public Law 16) 4,466,000<br>Counseling (Public Law 346) 4,316,000<br>10 percent book handling service charge 6,484,000<br>Reimbursement to States (on-the-job training) 2,895,000 | ---------- | 108,842 | 97,465 | 77,516 |
| *Department of Medicine and Surgery.*—Similar to other program of this department above, except operated through Veterans' Administration. (B) | Similar to other program of this department above, except:<br>1947: Break-down is as follows:<br>Education $82,000<br>Research 229,000<br>4,641 employees provided training in Veterans' Administration facilities; 5 research projects at 5 field stations.<br>1948, 1949: Statistics are as follows:<br>*Item* — *1948* — *1949*<br>Number special lectures for hospital staff: 6,000 — 12,000<br>Number visits by teaching consultants: 12,000 — 13,120<br>Number research projects in Veterans' Administration hospitals: 15 — 34<br>Funds available for education: $900,000 — $1,800,000<br>Funds available for research: $900,000 — $2,587,000 | NA | 311 | 1,800 | 4,387 |
| **WAR ASSETS ADMINISTRATION** | | | | | |
| Discount sales and donations of surplus property to educational institutions, to make available to them at nominal cost facilities, equipment, and materials which are surplus to the needs of the Federal Government. (A) | Advice obtained from United States Office of Education on suitability of property for educational use. Surpluses of types desired rapidly disappearing. High transportation costs are discouraging participation by schools. Total costs concerning WAA activities in education not available because they merge with general operations.<br>1949: Program liquidated during year. | ---------- | NA | NA | NA |

NOTE: For discount sales and donations of surplus property to educational institutions see text following.

## III. Non-budgetary Federal Assistance to Educational Institutions

In addition to the activities which concern education which appear in Section I of this chapter, the federal government has rendered considerable assistance to education in non-budgetary items, particularly in the post-World War II years. A detailed and complete accounting of these activities is not available. Three programs for which some figures are readily accessible are here included.

During approximately two years to May 1948, property surplus to the needs of the government initially valued at $646,663,358 was made available to the educational institutions by the War Assets Administration, Army, Navy, and Air Force, with the cooperation of the U.S. Office of Education. This included property valued at $295,778,973 (acquisition value) made available by donation from Army, Navy, and Air Force to 1,240 colleges and universities and 19,630 secondary schools. Also included was transfer of 77,431 acres of land and 15,708 buildings previously acquired by the federal government at a cost of approximately $350,884,385. The latter were discounted at a cost to the schools of approximately $3,042,947.[1]

In Section I of this chapter, under both Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency and Federal Works Agency, items were included for administration and operation of the Veterans' Educational Facilities Program. This has made available to educational institutions where need has been certified by the U.S. Office of Education a total of 16,534,000 square feet of buildings. No specific valuation, other than the federal funds indicated in Section I for administration, dis-assembly, transportation, and re-erection of the surplus buildings has been computed. The educational institutions estimated that they would expend approximately $19,500,000 for sites, utility connections, and so forth, related to this re-location of buildings project. The title to these buildings is transferred to the educational institutions. In addi-

[1] U.S. Office of Education memorandum dated 14 June 1948.

tion to buildings, this program also (as of 15 March 1948) has included 86,782,000 items of surplus personal property needed by educational institutions for the education of veterans. The established fair value of this property has been estimated at $92,989,000. In 1947, the institutions receiving either buildings or personal property or both under this program reported a veterans enrollment of 1,088,199.[2]

Veterans housing at educational institutions has been provided by the Housing and Home Finance Agency (previously the National Housing Agency) in co-operation with local agencies which provide site, development of streets, sidewalks, trunk utilities, and management. In some instances the government provided panels of demounted war housing and so forth for re-erection by the local agencies, in which cases project revenues accrued to the local bodies. However, in the majority of instances the construction was financed by the government, in which cases the project revenue, after deduction of operating costs, originally accrued to the government. Under both plans, as of 30 April 1948, accommodations had been provided for educational institutions as follows: family units, 48,492; trailer family, 11,308; dormitory, 87,427; trailer dormitory, 603; total, 147,830. The original contracts with local agencies required the demolition of this temporary housing by them after a determination by the government that the need for such housing no longer existed.[3]

The McGregor Act (P.L. 796) which passed the 80th Congress on 20 June 1948 generously made an outright gift to educational institutions of all veteran housing which had been built on land belonging to them. It is estimated that by this act some 129,000 housing units were given to colleges and universities, who were thereafter to receive all rentals therefrom. Institutions are required to demolish this housing by 1 January 1950 unless they can show further need by a continued student housing emergency. World War II veterans are given priority in use of this housing.

[2] Letter of 26 April 1948 from Bureau of Community Facilities, Federal Works Agency.

[3] Letter of 28 May 1948 from Office of the Administrator, Housing and Home Finance Agency.

## IV. Federal Activities Tangential to Education

In the study of federal services to education, some mention should be made of federal libraries and federal library services.

Many of these services are beyond the scope of the Commission's work since they involve activities of the Legislative Branch [4] of the federal government, but the Executive Branch does assist school, college, and public libraries in many ways and federal libraries have a profound effect upon library programs throughout the nation.

The bibliographic services of the Department of Agriculture, the Army Medical Library, the Department of Commerce, and the publications of the various departments are eagerly sought by libraries as educational tools. In turn, many federal libraries and federal research programs are strengthened through the co-operation of outside libraries. The primary need in this field is to correlate these services and establish standard procedures.

Greater co-operative use of libraries as distributing agencies for government publications would no doubt increase the publications' effectiveness and eliminate much waste in their use.

The Service to Libraries section of the Office of Education should assume leadership in the solution of such problems. However, until it is able to establish itself more firmly both financially and in the esteem of officials, it is not likely to be able to do so.

This study has not considered the organizational problems of federal libraries as they are beyond the scope of the report; however, in the course of the investigation it has become evident that a thorough study is needed and that such a study should lead to elimination of some duplication in both collections and services and should result in greatly improved service to the government and to the nation. Such a study should include libraries in all three major branches of the government.

What has been said for libraries could be repeated with somewhat equal emphasis for museums and government research agencies. It is believed that each of these fields is worthy of special study beyond the scope of this report.

[4] See Appendix A, letter from The Librarian of Congress, for statement of activities of the Library of Congress which have reference to education.

# *Chapter* 3. FEDERAL–STATE CO–OPERATIVE PROGRAMS IN EDUCATION

In order to understand the place of the federal government in relationship to the states in matters involving education, it is desirable to shift our attention to the historical development of co-operative federal activities of assistance to education in states. Those federal activities in this classification which are most significant and which have continued are treated in this chapter. Chapter 4 will be devoted to a number of significant non-permanent programs of concern to education in the states which developed during the emergency periods of the depression and World War II.

Although we as a people decided early in our history that the several states were primarily responsible for education, the national government has always been interested in the promotion and improvement of education in the states. This has been evidenced primarily through grants of land, grants of moneys, the establishment of the United States Office of Education, and through a miscellaneous group of activities which have been developed largely during the emergency periods of recent wars and depression. Those more important land and money grants for education through the states which have represented continuing (as contrasted with temporary) federal assistance and policy will be treated briefly in their historical aspects in this chapter.

The term "co-operation" is used in connection with these activities of the federal government, as the basic responsibility for the conduct of these programs rests upon the states. Federal subsidies, either in land or in moneys, usually represent the co-operation on the part of the government in helping the states to carry out these responsibilities. In each case, federal encouragement

to states to assume this responsibility is noted. Usually an agreement is made between the federal agency responsible for administration of the program and the appropriate agency of the state. This agreement constitutes an acceptance on the part of the state of the federal requirements and often outlines in considerable detail the plan of the state in local conduct of the program.

A reading of the previous chapter will indicate many federal educational activities which affect education in states which are not "in co-operation with states." These, largely dealing through other than state channels, will be treated in other portions of this report.

## I. Land Grants

### *A. Land Grants for Education in New States*

Even before the adoption of the Constitution, the basis for federal land grants to states for education had been established. The Ordinance of 1785, in specifying the manner in which the western lands should be surveyed, stipulated that "there shall be reserved the lot number 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within said township." This was followed closely by the Ordinance of 1787 which stated that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."[1] The Congress of the Confederation this same year specified, in selling lands in southeastern Ohio to the Ohio Company of Associates, that section number 16 of every township be reserved for schools and that two additional complete townships be reserved for the benefit of a college, the latter to be under the administration of the legislature of the future state. The seed for federal promotion of education had been planted.

[1] *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, The Macmillan Company, 1941, "Federal Relations to Education," p. 495.

Following the Enabling Act for the Admission of Ohio in 1802, in which Congress granted the 16th section of each township "to the inhabitants thereof" for schools, in 1803 it strengthened the hand of the state in education by placing control of all school lands in the state legislature in trust for the purpose mentioned. At the same time Congress granted a township to Ohio for a seminary of learning and stated that all educational land grants were to be "for schools and for no other use, intent, or purpose whatever." With minor exceptions this generous policy was continued for other new states [2] carved from the public domain which were admitted until 1848. Texas, Maine, and West Virginia received no public lands for common schools, Texas having no federally owned lands, and Maine and West Virginia having been made by dividing older states.

With the establishing of the Territory of Oregon in 1848, Congress provided that the 16th and 36th sections of each township should be reserved for the benefit of schools in any state or states to be established from this territory. California likewise was granted these two sections by acts of Congress in 1850 and 1853. This policy continued until 1896 when Utah was admitted to the Union with a grant of four sections of each township for education. Arizona and New Mexico, admitted in 1912, followed this pattern.

Oklahoma was given even more favorable treatment upon its admission to the Union in 1907. For education it received two sections of land (the 16th and 32nd) from each township and a $5,000,000 grant in gold in lieu of grants in the Indian Territory. The 13th section of each township was granted, the proceeds to be divided equally among normal schools, agricultural colleges, and the university. The 33rd section was granted for charitable and penal institutions and for public buildings. Under the latter grant, aid has been extended to buildings in consolidated school districts.

Brief mention should be made of a number of less important

[2] For instance, Tennessee and certain other states received the 16th section and 100,000 acres for academies and the same amount for colleges.

grants of land for the general support of education which have been given to the states. Up to 1927 saline lands in the amount of 834,000 acres had been granted to states, about 600,000 acres of which had been used to support education. The Internal Improvement Act of 1841 granted 500,000 acres of public land to each state admitted subsequent to 1800, except Maine, for the purpose of internal improvements. After 1845 this gift was largely diverted by the states to education, either by Congressional consent or mandate. This form of grant was discontinued after 1889. Up to 1927, fifteen states had received certain swamp lands from the federal government under an act of Congress of 1849. Although the original purpose was to assist the states in paying for levees and drains, after these were cared for, the revenues from some 40,000,000 acres remaining have been placed in the permanent school funds of the states.[3]

### *B. Land Grants for Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges*[4]

The Morrill Act of 1862 introduced two new policies of federal participation in education in that it stimulated special types of education by introducing a small measure of control in specifying broad types of curricula and introduced a manner of distribution which, to some extent, considered need of the various states. Section 4 of the act stated the purpose as:

> . . . the endowment, support, and the maintenance of at least one college where the leading objects shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life.[5]

[3] Cubberley, E. P., *State School Administration*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927, p. 38.

[4] These will be referred to subsequently as "land grant colleges," even though the individual institutions are often called "universities" and are usually known as agricultural and mechanical colleges or universities.

[5] 12 Stat. 504.

The act provided for the grant of 30,000 acres of land to each state for each Senator and each Representative then in Congress. For those states not having sufficient federally owned land within their boundaries to cover the grant, land script was issued which gave them the right to select lands elsewhere in the public domain. The fund created from the sale of these lands was for endowment purposes only, the interest to be used to support the institutions thus established. Under the Morrill and subsequent enabling acts, between 11,000,000 and 12,000,000 acres of federal lands have been given to the states. The colleges were required to transmit one copy of their annual report to the Secretary of the Interior.

Although it is difficult to compute the total endowment for schools and higher institutions in grants of federal lands as treated in subsections *A* and *B* above, it is estimated that the states have received "about 145,000,000 acres of public land for educational purposes (226,562 square miles; an area nine tenths as large as the entire old North-West Territory) . . . [and an added] 21,000,000 acres in Alaska (an area nearly as large as the State of Indiana)."[6]

## II. Money Grants to States for Education

### A. *General Grants*

In the Enabling Act which admitted Ohio to the Union (1802), the state was granted 5 per cent of the net proceeds from the sale of public lands within the state for the purpose of internal improvements. With the exception of Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, which had no public lands, this practice was continued. When Illinois was admitted in 1818, three-fifths of this fund was permitted to be used for education. Although the practice has not been consistent, Congress gave permission to

[6] Cubberley, E. P., *State School Administration*, p. 46.

several states to place all or part of this grant in the permanent school fund of the state. More recently, all states admitted have been granted the entire five per cent fund for the permanent school funds. Approximately $8,000,000 had been granted to the states for education from this source by 1927.[7]

The Act to Regulate the Deposit of Money, passed by Congress in 1836, provided for the "deposit" of the federal surplus with the states, in proportion to representation in Congress. Although declared to be a loan, it was everywhere regarded as a distribution. After over $28,000,000 had been "deposited" with states, the fourth and last payment was never made, due to the panic of 1837. About $7,500,000 of this "deposit" now remains in the custody of the states, the interest from which is all used for the support of schools. In a number of states where these funds were dissipated or lost, an interest charge on the amount of slightly less than $6,500,000 is still being paid for the support of schools.

In 1908 Congress authorized that 25 per cent of the income from the National Forest Reserve be paid to those states in which such income originated, for the benefit of public roads and public schools in the counties in which the reserves were located. This was in answer to the complaint that the reserves were tax exempt, thus materially reducing local revenues. The revenue from this source increased from $439,000 in 1909 to over $1,271,000 in 1925. In 1947 the payment to states was $4,546,723.96.[8] The forty states and two territories receiving funds from this source have often dedicated a considerable part for education.

This same principle was applied by Congress in 1920 to bonuses, royalties, and rentals received by the federal government from the extraction of "non-metallic mineral deposits" from public lands. The states in which such public lands were located receive 37½ per cent of the income for either public roads or education. A considerable portion of this sum has been devoted to

[7] The same, p. 32.

[8] *Federal Government Funds for Education, 1946–47 and 1947–48*, Leaflet No. 79, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1948, Table 13.

education. The total received from this source by the 21 participating states in 1947 was $5,988,470.40.[9]

The Grazing Act of 1934, somewhat similar in nature to the above, was authorization for payments to seventeen states of $517,238.80 in 1947.[10]

## *B. Special Grants*

1. *Land Grant Colleges—Federal Aid for Resident Instruction.* In a previous section, under *Land Grants for Education in New States*, the Morrill Act of 1862 has been discussed. In 1890 what has become known as the "Second Morrill Act"[11] became law. It supplemented the revenue of land grant colleges previously received from grants of land by the sum of $15,000 to each state, for "more complete endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, . . ." this sum to be increased by $1,000 per year until the total should be $25,000. This act provided a more restricted range of subjects than appeared in the original Morrill Act. It also specified that no moneys should be paid to any state under the provisions of the act where race segregation was practiced, "but the establishment and maintenance of colleges separately for white and colored students shall be held in compliance with the provisions of this act if the funds received in such State or Territory be equitably divided. . . ." Reports of finance and activities were to be made annually to the Secretaries of Agriculture and Interior, the latter being charged with the administration of the act. These duties were delegated to the U.S. Office of Education which still administers these grants.

The Nelson Amendment to the act,[12] making appropriations to the Department of Agriculture which became effective in 1908, provided an increase of $5,000 per year to each state, the increase to continue until $25,000 should be available from this source. It also provided that "colleges may use a portion of this money for

[9] The same, Table 14.
[10] The same, Table 15.
[11] 26 Stat. 417.
[12] 34 Stat. 1281.

providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts." Thus, under the Second Morrill Act and this amendment, $50,000 per year was made available to each state by 1911–12.

In 1935, the Bankhead-Jones Act [13] was passed, section 22 of which granted further support to the resident instruction program of the land grant colleges. It provided for this purpose $980,000 in 1936 with increments until the amount of $2,480,000 should be reached in 1940. The conditions of the first and second Morrill Acts as amended were to apply, except in the method of distribution of the fund. The initial amount granted in 1936 was divided equally between the states (including the Territory of Hawaii). The increments beyond that amount were apportioned to the states and Territory of Hawaii in proportion to their population.

Sixty-nine land grant higher institutions have been established, 66 by states [14] (including 17 Negro institutions) and one each by Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska.

The sum of $5,030,000 was paid to the land grant colleges for resident instruction in 1948, ranging in amounts from $50,000 each to Alaska and Puerto Rico to $223,836.92 to New York State.[15] By far the major revenues of these institutions are from state and local sources.

2. *Land Grant Colleges—Fiscal Aid for Agricultural Experiment Stations.* By 1887 a number of the land grant colleges had established agricultural experiment stations, and in the realization that further support and encouragement should be given to this activity Congress passed the Hatch Act [16] that year. This appropriated $15,000 per year to each state or territory for "researches or experiments bearing directly upon the agricultural industry of the United States" to be done in connection with its

[13] 49 Stat. 439.

[14] Massachusetts has two land grant institutions, as do each of the 17 states with separate Negro institutions.

[15] *Federal Government Funds for Education, 1946–47 and 1947–48,* U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Table 17.

[16] 24 Stat. 440.

land grant college. The act included rather complete suggestions as to the types of experimentations to be conducted, gave the United States Commissioner of Agriculture some supervisorial authority over the program, and required the publication by each station of periodic reports or bulletins. In connection with the latter, the postal franking privilege was given these stations. Each station was required to send a copy of its annual report to the Secretary of Agriculture and Secretary of the Treasury.

The Adams Act [17] of 1906 increased the appropriation for each state and territory by $5,000 per year, with yearly increases of $2,000 until the total should reach $15,000. The Secretary of Agriculture was made responsible for "the proper administration" of the law. The type of investigation permitted was indicated more specifically.

The Purnell Act [18] of 1925 provided authorization for appropriations increasing the annual grant to the states and territories for experiment stations by $20,000, and provided for annual increases of $10,000 until $60,000 per year should be authorized under the act. Thus, with the addition of funds under the two previously mentioned acts, the sum of $90,000 annually was authorized or appropriated to each state and territory for agricultural experiment stations by 1930. The Secretary of Agriculture was given administrative responsibility. The Purnell Act liberalized the areas of investigation of the stations by granting authority for studies dealing with:

> . . . production, manufacture, preparation, use, distribution, and marketing of agricultural products and including such scientific researches as have for their purpose the establishment and maintenance of a permanent and efficient agricultural industry, and such economic and sociological investigations as have for their purpose the development and improvement of the rural home and rural life. . . .

An act in 1931 [19] extended the benefits to Puerto Rico.

The work of the agricultural experiment stations was further aided by the Bankhead-Jones Act [20] of 1935, Title 1, which author-

[17] 34 Stat. 63. [18] 43 Stat. 970. [19] 46 Stat. 1520. [20] 49 Stat. 439.

ized $1,000,000 for its first year of operation, with increases of $1,000,000 a year until the total should be $5,000,000 per year. Of these sums, 40 per cent was for research by the United States Department of Agriculture and 60 per cent for the experiment stations. The basis of allocation of funds to the states, territories, and to Puerto Rico was in proportion to rural population. It further required that funds be matched by the states, territories, or by Puerto Rico. Its authorization for research projects is quite broad. Federal administrative responsibility remained with the Secretary of Agriculture.

Public Law 733 of the Seventy-ninth Congress [21] (The Research and Marketing Act of 1946) materially increased the authorization for appropriations to the experiment stations. A graduated increasing sum to reach $20,000,000 by 1951 and to remain at that figure annually thereafter was authorized, 20 per cent of which was to be divided equally between states, territories, and Puerto Rico, not less than 26 per cent distributed in proportion to rural population, not less than 26 per cent distributed in proportion to farm population (these to be matched), not more than 25 per cent for co-operative research between two or more state agricultural experiment stations, and 3 per cent for administration by the Department of Agriculture. An added $6,000,000 (increasing to this amount by 1950) was authorized for appropriation for "cooperative research with the state agricultural experiment stations and such other appropriate agencies as may be mutually agreeable to the Department of Agriculture and the experiment stations concerned. . . ." An added $20,000,000 (increasing to this amount by 1951) was authorized for the purpose of conducting research and service work in connection with the marketing of agricultural products, funds from which the Secretary of Agriculture allots to state agencies including agricultural experiment stations. The act also authorized appropriation of $15,000,000 (increasing to this amount by 1951) for research related to agricultural commodities and products through laboratories of the Department of Agriculture or through contract with public or

[21] 60 Stat. 1082.

private agencies. The Secretary of Agriculture was given broad powers in the administration of this act. During fiscal 1947 no research funds were made available to experiment stations under this act.

The Bureau of the Budget, in co-operation with the Department of Agriculture, presented reports in connection with this study indicating that in 1948 the following federal funds were available for general distribution to the state and territorial agricultural experiment stations: from the older acts, $7,161,000; and from the Research and Marketing Act, $4,291,000; totaling $11,452,000. Comparable figures for anticipated funds in 1949 were $7,361,000, $4,211,000, and $11,572,000. In addition, several other research projects utilizing the resources of the land grant colleges will have been noted in Chapter 2, both in the Department of Agriculture and in other departments of the government. The Agricultural Research Administration alone had sums available in excess of $5,000,000 both in 1948 and 1949 for research use in higher institutions such as land grant colleges.

It should be noted that during 1948 the agricultural experiment stations in Alaska were operated under a new plan by the federal government under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture. According to this plan, an appropriation of $144,940 was made available to include the amounts which would have been allotted under the previous laws.

The state experiment stations have been well supported from local sources, non-federal expenditures being $20,786,854 in 1946 compared with $7,206,208 from the federal government. Comparable figures for 1947 were $27,669,999 and $7,206,208.[22]

3. *Fiscal Grants for Agricultural Extension Service.* The Smith-Lever Act [23] of 1914 inaugurated a program of co-operation with the states, through their land grant colleges, for extension service in agriculture and home economics. This was the out-

[22] *Report on the Agricultural Experiment Stations, 1947*, issued January 1947, prepared by the U.S. Office of Experiment Stations, U.S. Department of Agriculture, p. 107.

[23] 38 Stat. 372.

growth of considerable agitation culminating in the 1909 report by the Country Life Commission appointed by President Theodore Roosevelt. It provided federal aid for "the diffusion among the people of useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same" to persons not attending colleges. The program was under the general direction of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. By its provisions $10,000 was provided to each state for publications. In addition, the sum of $600,000 per year, increased by increments to $4,100,000 by 1922–23, was provided for extension work, distributed to states in proportion to rural population. In order to share in these last moneys, the state was required to match, either from state or other local funds, the amount received from the federal appropriation. The present county agricultural work, home demonstration work, the 4–H Clubs, and state and county agricultural and homemaking specialists (other than in vocational education) have developed from this program.

The Capper-Ketcham Act [24] of 1928 provided authorization for appropriation of an added $20,000 to each state and Hawaii, plus $500,000 per year to be distributed to the states in proportion to rural population, the latter to be matched by the states as in the Smith-Lever Act.

The benefits of extension service were extended to Hawaii in 1928,[25] to Alaska in 1929,[26] and to Puerto Rico in 1931.[27]

The program of the agricultural extension service was still further supported through federal funds by the Bankhead-Jones Act [28] of 1935, Title II of which provided authorization for appropriation of an initial $8,000,000 to be increased by $1,000,000 per year until a total of $12,000,000 would be available. From this sum $20,000 was paid to each state and Hawaii, and the remainder to the states and Hawaii in proportion to farm population. This act deviated in two major respects from the provisions

[24] 45 Stat. 711.
[25] 45 Stat. 571.
[26] 45 Stat. 1256.
[27] 46 Stat. 1520.
[28] 49 Stat. 436.

of the previous acts: distribution was in terms of farm population rather than rural population, and there was no requirement of state matching of funds in order to participate.

Certain supplemental funds, amounting to $4,348,400 in 1918,[29] were stabilized at $1,580,000 for several years thereafter.[30] In 1930 the Secretary of Agriculture was authorized to allot these added funds "in such amounts as he may deem necessary."[31] Later this amounted to $275,000 in the Appropriation Act of 1939.

In 1945 the Bankhead-Flannagan Act[32] authorized $4,500,000 for 1946, to be increased by $4,000,000 for the two subsequent years to total $12,500,000 available in 1948. This act, administered by the Secretary of Agriculture, authorized:

> . . . paying the expenses of cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics, including technical and educational assistance to farm people in improving their standards of living, in developing individual farm and home plans, better marketing and distribution of farm products, work with rural youth in 4-H Clubs and older out-of-school youth, guidance of farm people in improving farm and home buildings, development of effective programs in canning, food preservation, and nutrition, and for the necessary printing and distribution in connection with the foregoing. . . .

A review of this activity as briefly described in Chapter 2 will indicate something of its current status and the extent of federal and local participation. Suffice it to say that $31,498,000 in federal funds was available for 1949.

4. *Vocational Education in the Secondary Schools.* All federal educational aid to states previous to 1917 had been given either for general education on the normal public school level (elementary and high schools through grants of land) or for special types of higher education, largely through the land grant colleges. The Smith-Hughes Act[33] of 1917 authorized federal support for vocational education at the secondary school level. This provided for a federal grant of $1,760,000 in its first year of

[29] 40 Stat. 274.
[30] 41 Stat. 261.
[31] 46 Stat. 870.
[32] 59 Stat. 231.
[33] 39 Stat. 929.

operation, increasing gradually until a total of $7,200,000 was reached in 1926, which sum was to continue thereafter. Of this sum, $200,000 was appropriated annually for a Federal Board for Vocational Education which was to administer the act and conduct a program of research in vocational education. It was specified that the remainder of the fund should be used in the states to re-imburse them by a sum not to exceed one-half of the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects and of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects. Instruction was required to be in the public schools of less than college grade, and for pupils over 14 years of age.

In the original Smith-Hughes Act no provision was made for the territories and outlying possessions. Its benefits were extended to Hawaii in 1924, and to Puerto Rico in 1931, with an added annual authorization of $135,000 to cover the two. The program of vocational education in Alaska was organized in 1935–36.

No effort will be made here to analyze the details of the Smith-Hughes Act in regard to such matters as the rigid allocation of funds in the various areas of vocational education, the length of courses, the required directed or supervised practice, the proportion of the pupil's time to be devoted to vocational subjects, or the number of hours per week that school be maintained. Suffice it to say that the National Resources Committee in reporting on federal grants-in-aid in 1936 concluded that the two federal grants with the greatest degree of federal control were those for the National Guard and for the program of vocational education as initiated by the Smith-Hughes Act.[34]

The Federal Board for Vocational Education was given rather broad powers in administering the act, including the review and approval of detailed plans for vocational education as prepared by the states (through required state boards for vocational education), and the withholding of "the allotment of moneys to any State whenever it shall be determined that such moneys are not

[34] National Resources Committee, *Public Works Planning*, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, 1936, pp. 197–8.

being expended for the purposes and under the conditions of this Act." The board was composed of the Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Labor, Secretary of Commerce, United States Commissioner of Education, and three citizens appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. The three appointed members were to represent the fields of agriculture, industry, and labor, and were originally paid $5,000 per year, with later increases which brought their salaries to $8,000 each in 1930. Under an act of Congress in 1933 which authorized the President to group, co-ordinate, and consolidate executive and administrative agencies of the government in the interests of reduced expenditures and increased efficiency, President Roosevelt in that same year issued an Executive Order transferring the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to the Department of the Interior, made the board advisory only and without compensation. Later that year the Secretary of the Interior assigned the functions to the U.S. Commissioner of Education. The board was quite inactive for several years and was subsequently abolished.

The George-Reed Act [35] of 1929 authorized a supplemental appropriation to be distributed to the states, Hawaii, and Alaska of $500,000 per year, to increase to $2,500,000 by 1934, carrying no authorization for further appropriations past that year. Half the fund was to be devoted to vocational education in agriculture, to be distributed on the basis of farm population, and half to vocational education in home economics, distributed on the basis of rural population. An added $100,000 per year was authorized for administration of the act. Upon the expiration of the George-Reed Act in 1934, somewhat similar activities were provided in the George-Ellzey Act.[36] This provided for $3,000,000 per year for the next three years only, and extended the activities of the previous act by including vocational education in trades and industries. An added $84,603 was made available to meet the minimal appropriation to smaller states, and $100,000 for administration of the act. Otherwise this act varied only in minor points from the earlier George-Reed Act.

[35] 45 Stat. 1151.

[36] 45 Stat. 792.

While the two acts discussed above merely supplemented the amounts available through the Smith-Hughes Act, the George-Deen Act [37] of 1936 authorized an appropriation of $14,483,000, or nearly twice the amount per year available under the parent (Smith-Hughes) act. It extended the program to include vocational education in the distributive occupations so that the areas of vocational education were: agriculture, $4,000,000; home economics, $4,000,000; trade and industrial, $4,000,000; distributive occupations, including teacher education in this field, $1,200,000; and preparation of teachers, supervisors, and directors in the first three areas above, $1,000,000. In addition, $350,000 was authorized to the U.S. Office of Education for administration of the program. States and outlying areas were required to match half of the subsidies for the first three categories above until 1942, increases in the matching ratios continuing until 1947 when the subsidies were matched dollar for dollar. Distribution to states was determined as follows: agricultural education—in proportion to farm population; home economics education—in proportion to rural population; trade and industrial education—in proportion to non-farm population; distributive occupational education—in proportion to total population; and teacher education—in proportion to total population. The total of federal funds provided under the Smith-Hughes and the George-Deen acts for the support of vocational education of less than college grade in the several states and outlying areas, including the federal administration of the program, amounted to $21,768,122.03 [38] in 1942.

In 1946 the George-Barden Act [39] was enacted which supplemented the Smith-Hughes Act and superseded the George-Deen Act. In addition to the appropriation of the Smith-Hughes Act, this provided authorization for appropriation for a total of more

[37] 49 Stat. 1488.

[38] Public Affairs Bulletin No. 30, *High Lights in the Development of Federal Policies and Activities in Education,* Library of Congress Legislative Reference Service, Washington, April 1944, p. 17.

[39] 60 Stat. 775.

TABLE 2. APPROPRIATIONS UNDER THE SMITH-HUGHES ACT AND AUTHORIZATION FOR APPROPRIATIONS UNDER THE GEORGE-BARDEN ACT, FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AS OF JUNE 1948

| Purpose | Under Smith-Hughes | Method of dist. to states [a] | Under George-Barden | Method of dist.[b] | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agricultural education . . | $3,000,000 | In proportion to rural population | $10,000,000 | In proportion to farm population | $13,000,000 |
| Home Economics | 3,000,000 | In proportion to urban population | 8,000,000 | In proportion to rural population | 8,000,000 |
| | | | | In proportion to non-farm population | 3,000,000 |
| Trades and industry | | | 8,000,000 | | 8,000,000 |
| Distributive occupations | | . . . . . | 2,500,000 | In proportion to total population | 2,500,000 |
| Preparation of vocational teachers . . . . . | 1,000,000 | In proportion to total population | . . . . . [c] | | 1,000,000 |
| Administration by Office of Education . . . . . | 200,000 [d] | . . . . . | 350,000 | . . . . . | 550,000 |
| Total . . . . . | $7,200,000 | | $28,850,000 | | $36,050,000 |

[a] Except that not less than $10,000 in each classification should be available to any state.

[b] Except that not less than $40,000 in the first three classifications and $15,000 in the fourth classification be available to any state or territory.

[c] See text above.

[d] In 1934 this was changed to an authorization for an appropriation.

than $28,850,000 annually for vocational education as follows: $10,000,000 for agriculture; $8,000,000 for home economics; $8,000,000 for trades and industry; $2,500,000 for distributive occupations; $350,000 for administration by the U.S. Office of Education. It further provided that no state or territory should receive less than $40,000 for vocational education in each program in agriculture, home economics, and in trade and industry, nor less than $15,000 for vocational education in distributive occupations. States and territories were required to match federal funds dollar for dollar. While the George-Deen Act had authorized $1,000,000 for preparation of vocational teachers, supervisors, and directors, this act provided that teacher training could be conducted with the general grants to states for vocational education in accordance with the federally approved state plan.

The preceding table indicates the present appropriations made under the Smith-Hughes Act and the authorizations for appropriations under the George-Barden Act.

Actually the sums authorized are slightly greater than those appearing in the above totals due to increases to care for the minimum amounts specified to states and territories stated in the footnotes to the table. Although these amounts are authorized, the Congress has not appropriated the entire amount. Actual funds available were $26,619,000 in 1948 and $27,128,000 in 1949.

Something of the status of the program for vocational education in co-operation with the states is indicated by the following tables.

Although states are required to match federal funds dollar for dollar, in 1947 they actually expended almost three dollars for every dollar of federal money, as indicated by tables 4 and 5. It will be noted that state and local support is proportionately more heavy for trade and industrial education and for homemaking than for agricultural or distributive occupations education.

There is considerable variation between states, however, in their support of this program. While Maine, Nevada, and New Hampshire expended one dollar for each dollar of federal money received, Washington expended $5.55 and New York $5.44 for

TABLE 3. ENROLLMENT IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL CLASSES, BY TYPE OF PROGRAM, FISCAL YEARS 1945–46 AND 1946–47

| Type of program | Enrollment | |
|---|---|---|
| | 1945–46 * | 1946–47 † |
| Agriculture | 510,331 | 584,571 |
| Distributive occupations | 174,672 | 235,087 |
| Home economics | 911,816 | 964,521 |
| Trade and industry | 630,844 | 727,926 |
| Total | 2,227,663 | 2,512,105 |

* *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency*, Section Two (U.S. Office of Education), 1947, p. 191.

† Estimated by the U.S. Office of Education. Actual total later was indicated as 2,508,618.

TABLE 4. PER CENT OF EXPENDITURES FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FROM FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL SOURCES BY YEARS, 1945–46 AND 1946–47

| Type of program | 1945–46 | | | 1946–47 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Federal | State | Local | Federal | State | Local |
| Agriculture | 34.2 | 24.3 | 41.5 | 30.8 | 25.7 | 43.5 |
| Home economics | 25.2 | 27.0 | 47.8 | 23.0 | 28.3 | 28.7 |
| Trade and industry | 25.1 | 24.9 | 50.0 | 21.8 | 25.8 | 52.4 |
| Distributive occupations | 43.4 | 29.2 | 27.4 | 39.5 | 32.1 | 28.4 |
| Total | 28.4 | 25.3 | 46.3 | 25.4 | 26.6 | 48.0 |

each federal dollar. The degree of this variability, and the variability between the four fields of vocational education, will be noted in table 5.

5. *Vocational Rehabilitation.* Vocational rehabilitation is not of particular concern to this study, except as it affects the institutionalized educational systems within the United States and the outlying areas. The Smith-Sears Act [40] of 1918 provided, among other things, for the vocational re-education and return to civilian employment of disabled military personnel of World War I. With an initial total appropriation of $2,000,000, considerable

[40] 40 Stat. 617.

TABLE 5. STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES PER DOLLAR OF FEDERAL EXPENDITURES FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION BY STATE AND FIELD OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, FISCAL YEAR 1947 *

| State or territory | Total | Agriculture | Distributive occupations | Home economics | Trades and industry |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | $2.38 | $1.79 | $1.15 | $2.81 | $3.64 |
| Arizona | 2.37 | 1.12 | 1.01 | 4.43 | 2.24 |
| Arkansas | 2.78 | 2.27 | 1.79 | 4.02 | 2.64 |
| California | 3.96 | 3.31 | 1.82 | 5.32 | 3.93 |
| Colorado | 1.99 | 1.03 | 1.39 | 3.46 | 1.90 |
| Connecticut | 4.26 | 1.00 | 1.36 | 1.53 | 7.07 |
| Delaware | 1.32 | 1.01 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.87 |
| Florida | 4.07 | 3.03 | 1.50 | 3.30 | 5.90 |
| Georgia | 3.32 | 2.76 | 2.60 | 5.00 | 2.61 |
| Idaho | 1.42 | 1.45 | † | 1.84 | 1.05 |
| Illinois | 2.71 | 3.97 | 1.04 | 4.13 | 1.56 |
| Indiana | 3.30 | 3.12 | 1.02 | 4.83 | 2.71 |
| Iowa | 1.84 | 1.59 | 1.01 | 2.88 | 1.27 |
| Kansas | 1.70 | 2.03 | 1.04 | 1.78 | 1.07 |
| Kentucky | 1.55 | 1.32 | 1.02 | 2.14 | 1.43 |
| Louisiana | 3.64 | 3.26 | 1.32 | 5.29 | 3.06 |
| Maine | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Maryland | 2.91 | 1.57 | 1.06 | 2.99 | 4.07 |
| Massachusetts | 4.51 | 2.49 | 1.00 | 4.88 | 4.98 |
| Michigan | 2.57 | 1.69 | 1.37 | 2.62 | 3.37 |
| Minnesota | 2.26 | 1.15 | 1.66 | 2.46 | 3.84 |
| Mississippi | 2.41 | 2.23 | 1.02 | 2.85 | 2.61 |
| Missouri | 1.83 | 1.54 | 1.02 | 1.87 | 2.25 |
| Montana | 1.59 | 1.51 | 1.12 | 2.41 | 1.07 |
| Nebraska | 1.92 | 1.69 | 1.72 | 2.36 | 1.88 |
| Nevada | 1.00 | 1.00 | † | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| New Hampshire | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| New Jersey | 2.35 | 1.33 | 1.04 | 1.43 | 2.94 |
| New Mexico | 1.81 | 1.66 | 1.00 | 2.48 | 1.50 |
| New York | 5.44 | 3.22 | 1.00 | 2.94 | 7.08 |
| North Carolina | 2.46 | 2.34 | 1.32 | 3.39 | 1.66 |
| North Dakota | 1.87 | 1.01 | 1.22 | 2.69 | 2.22 |
| Ohio | 2.13 | 1.63 | 1.08 | 2.14 | 2.61 |
| Oklahoma | 2.46 | 2.47 | 1.62 | 3.23 | 1.80 |
| Oregon | 2.11 | 1.61 | 1.83 | 2.11 | 2.74 |
| Pennsylvania | 3.38 | 2.65 | 1.37 | 3.68 | 3.87 |
| Rhode Island | 1.43 | 1.57 | † | 1.25 | 1.44 |
| South Carolina | 3.02 | 2.55 | 2.42 | 4.00 | 3.04 |
| South Dakota | 1.61 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 2.91 | 1.00 |

TABLE 5 (*continued*)

| State or territory | Total | Agriculture | Distributive occupations | Home economics | Trades and industry |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tennessee | 2.23 | 1.55 | 1.24 | 3.13 | 2.93 |
| Texas | 2.95 | 3.27 | 2.04 | 4.42 | 1.00 |
| Utah | 3.30 | 3.22 | 2.43 | 3.13 | 3.75 |
| Vermont | 1.32 | 1.01 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.94 |
| Virginia | 4.07 | 2.60 | 5.30 | 6.34 | 4.17 |
| Washington | 5.55 | 3.78 | 4.67 | 6.64 | 6.60 |
| West Virginia | 2.11 | 1.04 | 1.05 | 1.57 | 4.48 |
| Wisconsin | 3.93 | 2.63 | 3.07 | 4.87 | 4.95 |
| Wyoming | 1.34 | 1.15 | 1.00 | 1.69 | 1.18 |
| District of Columbia | 2.54 | 1.00 | 1.12 | 1.96 | 3.31 |
| Hawaii | 2.96 | 1.77 | 1.02 | 5.05 | 3.00 |
| Puerto Rico | 1.21 | 1.01 | 1.02 | 1.28 | 1.52 |
| Total | $2.95 | $2.25 | $1.53 | $3.33 | $3.60 |

° Furnished by the Plans and Reports Branch, U.S. Office of Education, June 3, 1948.

† No program.

activity under this bill involved contracts for tuition with existing schools, colleges, and technical institutions. This reached its peak in 1921–22 when $178,809,861 was expended for vocational rehabilitation under the Veterans' Bureau. By 1927 the program had ceased to exist.

This enterprise was extended to "provide for the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry, or otherwise, and their return to civil employment" by the Smith-Bankhead Act[41] of 1920. The first year $750,000 was authorized, and $1,000,000 for each of the following years. The program was administered by the Federal Board for Vocational Education in co-operation with the required state boards for vocational education as in the Smith-Hughes Act. A considerable part of the activity, particularly as related to vocational education, was done through the state and local schools and colleges. In 1933 the administration of this

[41] 41 Stat. 735.

program was transferred to the U.S. Office of Education where it remained until 1943 when the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation was established as a constituent unit of the Federal Security Agency.[42]

Originally, funds were to be matched by participating states. The program was extended by other acts of Congress from time to time. Between the years 1933 and 1937 the program was augmented by funds from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. The Social Security Act of 1935, as amended in 1939, authorized an appropriation of $3,500,000 annually for this purpose. During the year ending June 30, 1942, federal funds in the sum of $3,030,000 [43] were allotted for vocational rehabilitation.

While the original Smith-Bankhead Act of 1920 had applied only to the states, the program was extended to Hawaii in 1923, the District of Columbia in 1929, and to Puerto Rico in 1931. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1943 [44] amended and superseded the Smith-Bankhead Act of 1920, providing for the vocational rehabilitation of war-disabled civilians (in certain defense activities) and other disabled civilians through state plans approved by the Federal Security Administrator. This act specified that the states be re-imbursed by the federal government for "necessary costs (exclusive of administrative expenses) . . ." for vocational rehabilitation of war-disabled civilians and for "one-half of necessary expenditures . . . (exclusive of administrative expense) . . ." for vocational rehabilitation of other disabled individuals, to include medical and surgical care, hospitalization, occupational equipment, prosthetic devices, vocational education, and other items. Disbursements were made by the Secretary of the Treasury upon certification of the Federal Security Administrator, who was given the power to withhold funds when the state program was improperly administered. The act "authorized to be included in the appropriations of the Federal Security Agency

[42] Federal Security Agency Order No. 3, Supplement 1, Sept. 4, 1943.

[43] Public Affairs Bulletin No. 30, *High Lights in the Development of Federal Policies and Activities in Education*, p. 18.

[44] 57 Stat. 43.

such sums as are necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act. . . ."

In all states except New Jersey (which has a separate rehabilitation commission), the state boards for vocational education are responsible for administration of the program in states. A further exception is to be noted in the case of rehabilitation of the blind, which function is carried out in 35 states by special state agencies for the blind.

Particularly since 1943, the program in vocational rehabilitation has changed its emphasis from vocational re-education to physical restoration of the individual. Thus it is believed that the total federal cost of this program should not be listed under education.

In 1947, 21,941 persons received educational institution training in this program, for which the states paid $2,771,410 in tuition. The amount of federal moneys going to educational institutions for this program increased from $882,000 in 1940 to $1,681,000 in 1947 and was anticipated at about $2,200,000 in 1949.

6. *Marine Schools.* In the State Marine School Act of 1911 Congress authorized the promotion of nautical education by federal aid "to be used for the benefit of any nautical school, or school or college having a nautical branch" in any of eleven named seaport cities. Phases of the program dated back to an Act of Congress in 1874. The Secretary of the Navy was authorized to furnish, upon request of the state governor, a suitable vessel fully equipped. Navy personnel could be furnished for supervision or instruction in the school. In addition, federal funds were made available to match funds from "state or municipality," providing the federal participation would "not exceed $25,000 for any one school" per year. In 1941 the supervision of these schools, which are known as State Maritime Academies, was transferred from the Navy to the U.S. Maritime Commission. By the same act an added provision was made for payment up to $25,000 to each school for non-resident students (cadets). Academies have been established in five states. In 1947, actual grants to these states were obligated in the sum of $179,000, repairs to vessels were

$125,000, and pay and subsistence to cadets was $839,000. The five states contributed approximately $630,000 to the program. Pennsylvania closed its academy subsequently and the total of available federal funds was $1,488,000 in 1949, of which $200,000 was in grants to the four remaining states.

7. *School Lunch Program.* For almost one hundred years sporadic and growing efforts have been made to provide adequate lunch programs for school children. This was motivated earlier by charity and more recently by desire to improve the physical well-being of children. The past thirty years has seen a rapid growth of this program and a recognition of responsibility by those charged with administration in many of our schools. This had been considered a purely local responsibility until 1932 when the Reconstruction Finance Corporation gave loans to a few communities in partial support of school lunch programs. The WPA and NYA (until their expiration in the early 1940's) also provided labor for certain school lunch programs.

The Secretary of Agriculture by Public Law 320 of 1935[45] was authorized to encourage "the domestic consumption of such [agricultural] commodities or products by diverting them, by the payment of benefits or indemnities or by any other means, from the normal channels of trade and commerce. . . ." This was considered authorization for furnishing food for school lunches. Subsequent questioning of whether this was the intent of the law was clarified in 1936 by Public Law 461[46] which authorized donations of food to low income groups. The continuation of the program was based on this act, and the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation was designated as the administering federal agency for diverting food for school lunches.

This activity was augmented in 1940 by the Penny Milk Program which had the dual purpose of providing milk to needy children and of aiding the dairy interests. The Secretary of Agriculture made contracts with milk handlers to furnish milk to selected schools for sale at one cent per half pint. This program was combined with the school lunch program in 1943.

[45] 49 Stat. 774.

[46] 49 Stat. 1511.

With the changing food and transportation situations brought about by World War II, the program was altered in 1943. The Food Distribution Administration of the War Food Administration, then having administrative responsibility for the program, partially re-imbursed states and schools on the basis of the type of lunch served and the obligation incurred. Public and non-profit private schools and child care centers could participate, purchases being made locally by schools, supplemented by federally purchased and distributed commodities.

The program was regularized by the National School Lunch Act of 1946,[47] the purposes of which were "to safeguard the health and well-being of the Nation's children and to encourage the domestic consumption of nutritious agricultural commodities and other foods. . . ." The states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Alaska, and the Virgin Islands are assisted "through grants in aid and other means, in providing an adequate supply of foods and other facilities for the establishment, maintenance, operation, and expansion of non-profit school lunch programs." The act states that each year "there is hereby authorized to be appropriated . . . such sums as may be necessary to enable the Secretary of Agriculture . . . to carry out . . ." its provisions. The appropriation for 1947 was $75,000,000, with an added deficiency appropriation of $6,000,000.

The act authorized $10,000,000 each year "to the Secretary [of Agriculture] for the purpose of providing . . . non-food assistance . . . " defined as "equipment used on school premises in storing, preparing, or serving food for school children," this sum to be apportioned to the states on the same basis as the food subsidies as indicated below. Not less than 75 per cent of the federal appropriation is to be distributed to the states and outlying areas for food purchases. "Apportionment among the states [including outlying areas] shall be on the basis of two factors: (1) the number of school children in the states [census children five to seventeen years of age, inclusive] and (2) the need for assistance in the state as indicated by the relation of the per

[47] 60 Stat. 230.

capita income in the United States to the per capita income in the state." Not more than three and a half per cent of the funds are for federal administration of the program through the Secretary of Agriculture. Funds remaining after deducting the above three items from the total appropriation are available to the Secretary of Agriculture "for direct expenditure by him for agricultural commodities and other foods to be distributed among the states and schools participating in the School Lunch Program under this Act in accordance with needs as determined by the local school authorities."

Funds are available to public and non-profit private schools and to non-profit child care centers in Puerto Rico. In states which prohibit disbursement of public funds to non-profit private schools the Department of Agriculture deals directly with these private schools. Agreements for operation of the program are made between the Secretary of Agriculture and state educational agencies or non-profit private schools.

Until 1950 the states (or non-profit private schools as above) are required to match federal grants dollar for dollar, the ratio increasing thereafter until 1955, after which the states are required to provide three dollars for each one dollar of federal money, except that low-ability states reduce the matching requirement "by the percentage which the state per capita income is below the per capita income of the United States."

Among the several specific requirements of the act are those which specify that: the lunches served must "meet minimum nutrition requirements prescribed by the Secretary [of Agriculture] on the basis of tested nutrition research"; meals must be served to children without cost or at reduced cost to those children unable to pay as determined by local school authorities; the entire program must be operated on a non-profit basis; food designated by the Secretary of Agriculture "as being in abundance" or commodities donated by him are to be used as far as practicable by the schools.

The Production and Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture each month sends to each state a list of

abundant foods, usually five or six items. A sample list in 1947 specified the following as being abundant: potatoes, peanuts, spinach, eggs, peas, and big-tom turkeys. The list for June 1948 specified the following: Irish potatoes, spinach, celery, citrus fruits, fresh and frozen fish, and eggs. Area offices of the Department of Agriculture are permitted to make minor changes in these lists to meet local conditions of supply.

The act provides equitable distribution of funds in states maintaining separate schools for minority races. It also provides for audit of the program in states and participating schools by representatives of the Secretary of Agriculture.

In terms of federal policy, several items are worthy of notice: (1) the program is for a very specific purpose; (2) the comparative fiscal ability of a state is one of the bases for distribution of the grant in aid, not previously evident in educational grants; (3) the program gives the first federal money grants ever to be available generally to elementary schools of the country; (4) the program, although dealing with the elementary and secondary schools, is administered by a "non-educational" government agency; (5) the program serves both public and non-public schools; (6) a federal agency deals directly with certain non-profit private schools.

Recent statistics for this program will be noted under "Department of Agriculture" in Chapter 2.

## III. Miscellaneous

### *A. Promotion of Aviation Education, Civil Aeronautics Administration*

This program is included among those carried out through federal co-operation with states as it operates largely through state departments of education in assisting them to develop state-wide programs.

The Act of 1938 establishing the Civil Aeronautics Authority [48]

[48] 52 Stat. 973.

specified one of its functions to be "the encouragement and development" of civil aeronautics. Under this broad authority the CAA has embarked on an educational promotion and service program for schools and colleges. Until the close of the war these activities were more concerned with education in technical phases of aviation, but since that time considerable of its emphasis has changed to assistance to general education. The program now is involved with the introduction of materials dealing with aviation into the curricula of many subjects, extending from the early grades through high school and into college. "This government organization recognizes that if aviation is to reach its maximum development it must foster, in addition to its technical and scientific development, a public understanding of the airplane's social, political and economic significance." [49]

In addition to pamphlet material issued by the CAA, the publication of numerous textbooks has been encouraged. Service is rendered to state departments of education in developing statewide programs. In-service training of teachers is sponsored through payments of certain costs, furnishing of staff, or scholarships to teachers at summer curriculum workshops operated in universities and colleges. The CAA has also supported research projects leading to school textbook production in several universities and colleges. One such book of 855 pages, prepared at Stanford University School of Education with CAA support, titled *Aviation Education Source Book, Subject Matter and Activities Drawn from Aviation, Suitable for Inclusion in Textbooks and Courses of Study for the Elementary and Junior High Grades,* is described as follows:

A remarkable volume that incorporates for the teacher, supervisor, textbook writer, and curriculum maker, air age education materials appropriate to each of the levels of the elementary and junior high school arts, language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science programs. Material is so organized that it can be readily used in the classroom.

[49] *Aviation Education and the Civil Aeronautics Administration,* U.S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Office of Aviation Training, April 1947, p. 2.

Much of the junior high school program is suitable for fusion in senior high grades. Includes pedagogical discussion where necessary to clarify objectives, methods, and curriculum problems. Well illustrated. Excellent annotated bibliography. Level: first grade to adult. Subject: education.[50]

The titles of a few publications of the CAA will further illustrate its activities in education: (1) *A Survey of Collegiate Courses in Aviation and Related Fields* (prepared for and with the co-operation of the CAA by the American Council on Education); (2) *Selected References and Teaching Aids for the Study of Aviation;* (3) *An Aviation Resource Unit for Primary Grade Teachers,* including a story "Kitten Cotton and Her Boy Friends"; (4) *Aviation for Teachers, A Study Guide for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers;* (5) *An Airport Laboratory Plan for Students in Secondary Schools and Colleges;* (6) *Guide to the Preparation of a State-Wide Program in Aviation Education* (gives suggestions for method and content in practically all subjects at all grade levels); (7) *A Selected and Annotated Bibliography on the Professional Aspects of Aviation Education* (objectives, scope, curriculum, method); (8) *A Selected and Annotated Bibliography on the Social, Political, Economic, and International Aspects of Aviation* (" . . . the purpose has been to supply teachers at the different grade levels with sufficient references in each area of the social implications of aviation to make possible intelligent and functional fusing of air age problems into social studies courses"); (9) *Outline of a Suggested Junior College Program in General and Vocational Aviation;* (10) *A Selected and Annotated Bibliography in Aviation for Guidance Counsellors;* (11) *A Selected and Annotated Bibliography of Recent Air Age Education Textbooks* ("The scope of the present bibliography includes the publications in air-age education, grades 1–12, in the general subject matter areas of language arts, social studies, science, industrial arts, mathematics and aviation.")

[50] *Orientation in Air Age Education for Teachers,* U.S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Office of Aviation Training, April 1947, p. 7.

The following, under a title *Respect for State Rights*, indicates the high regard of this activity for professional channels in its operation:

> . . . However, since all educational matters are reserved by the Federal Constitution to the several States themselves and, as a consequence, State and local educational autonomy does exist, it is a fixed policy of the Aviation Training Staff to approach all educational problems via the Departments of Education of the several States. The prerogatives of the States in the matter of educational policies and procedures cannot be ignored. Each State must initiate its own program of aviation education. The Aviation Education staff may offer suggested programs, but its best efforts are spent in the implementation of the local and State aviation curricula with professional and technical advice and assistance.[51]

This activity is accomplished by a staff of four persons in Washington and seven field representatives and their secretaries located in the seven CAA regional offices.[52] The statistics in Table 6, page 90, will indicate scope of activities during fiscal 1947.

The federal support for this program amounted to $160,000 in 1947, $101,000 available in 1948, and $127,000 to be available for 1949.[53]

A number of other federal activities in education have some of the qualities of federal-state co-operative programs. Among these are the Extension Service of the Department of Commerce (discontinued in fiscal 1949), and the Public Health Service (Federal Security Agency) programs for training personnel for state and local health work, for training of professional nurses, and for conducting training institutes in states. No clear-cut dichotomy between co-operative programs and those which are not based on the co-operative plan is possible. This chapter has given major

[51] *The Aviation Training Staff*, a mimeographed bulletin of The Aviation Training Staff of the Civil Aeronautics Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1, 1947, p. 7–7.

[52] Information from the office of the Acting Administrator of Civil Aeronautics, May 7, 1948.

[53] Information from the Bureau of the Budget, June 1948.

TABLE 6. RECORD OF PROJECT ACTIVITIES AND SERVICES OF CAA AVIATION EDUCATION DIVISION FOR FISCAL YEAR 1947 *

| *Project activities and services* | *Number* |
|---|---|
| State-wide aviation education programs | 12 |
| Aviation education division publications | 18 |
| Airport operations institutes | 71 |
| Major addresses given | 89 |
| Planning and conducting implementation activities, classes, workshops, and so forth | 494 |
| Conferences with school officials | 745 |
| Distribution of items per requests | 133,000 |
| Summer session teacher training workshops: | |
| States served | 38 |
| Operations institutes held in conjunction with workshops | 48 |
| Number of workshops | 73 |
| Number of teacher groups contacted | 193 |
| Number of lectures given | 428 |
| Number of days' time contributed | 365 |
| Institutional requests for service during and immediately following workshop period July 1 to October | 600 |
| Number of teachers attending | 12,428 |
| Number of school children affected | 372,840 |

* From the Bureau of the Budget, May 6, 1948.

consideration to those co-operative programs which are of special concern to this report.

## IV. SUMMARY

The federal government since the days of the Articles of Confederation has promoted the cause of education in the states through a number of co-operative programs. While practically all these activities prior to 1862 were for general assistance to education in the states, since that date the federal government has undertaken co-operative assistance only to special types of educational institutions, to promote special types of education, or to promote special aspects of education. These programs in co-operation with the states have had an extensive influence on education. The effects of these and other federal activities on education in the states are discussed in Chapters 11, 12, and 13.

# *Chapter 4.* THE HISTORY OF NON-CONTINUING EMERGENCY FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION, 1933–46

During the emergency periods of the depression and World War II the federal government undertook a number of temporary educational projects, several of which were in marked contrast with previous national policy in respect to education. Certain other of these federal activities are significant in extending policy as previously developed. A few of these projects are described in this chapter in the belief that certain lessons may be gained therefrom which will serve as guides to future educational participation and organization by the federal government.

## I. Educational Activities Originating as Relief Measures during the Depression Period

### *A. The Youth Problem of the Depression Period*

The factors causing the aggravated youth unemployment problem of the depression years had been accumulating for a considerable time. The widening gulf between time of leaving school and time of entering employment; increased mechanization of farm and industry; decreasing employment demand, particularly among the relatively unskilled; changes in population trends; and increased job security of older workers were but a few of the factors which culminated in a critical situation for youth during the period of the 1930's. Several million of our youth were out of school and without employment.[1] The depression which pre-

[1] Estimates of unemployed out-of-school youth under the age of 25 between 1933 and 1935 varied from 3,000,000 to 6,000,000.

cipitated this situation also curtailed the resources which normally might have been available for state or local solution of the problem. The federal government undertook the responsibility.

1. *The Civilian Conservation Corps.* The first federal agency to deal with this problem was the Civilian Conservation Corps, established in 1933. This was strictly a federal project with practically no state or local educational participation. Although initially conceived primarily as a relief and conservation measure, it soon became evident that its work must of necessity be educational. In 1938 it was reported [2] that 84 per cent of young men enrolled in the CCC had not completed high school, 48 per cent had not completed elementary grades, many were illiterate, and that about 50 per cent had never been engaged in any regular employment.

Within a matter of months after the initiation of the Corps, the assistance of the U.S. Office of Education was enlisted in the establishment of an educational program. With new legislation in 1937, more prominence was given to the educational aspects of the program. President Roosevelt in 1939 stated that the purpose of the CCC was "to promote the welfare and further the training of the individuals. . . ." [3] Thus there was a distinct change to emphasis on education as the Corps developed.

In its first years the CCC was an independent agency of the federal government, headed by a director who was responsible for the administration of the program, but with the co-operation of various federal departments and agencies. The United States Employment Service and affiliated state agencies assisted in the selection of enrollees. The War Department was usually responsible for the administration of the camps, although in a few special cases this was done by the Department of the Interior or the Department of Agriculture. The work projects were usually under the direction and with the co-operation of the Forest Service, the National Parks Service, or the Soil Conservation Service.

[2] The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee,* U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, February 1938, p. 117.

[3] *Congressional Record,* Vol. 84, p. 4710.

The technical details of the educational program were formulated and recommended by the U.S. Commissioner of Education who appointed area, district, and camp educational advisers responsible to the military commanders at each level. Informal correspondence between educational advisers and the U.S. Office of Education was authorized. With the multitude of co-operating federal agencies and the high degree of co-ordination necessary, it is noteworthy that relatively little operational criticism has been made of the CCC program. On July 1, 1939, the CCC was placed under the Federal Security Agency, and in 1942 Congress provided that the Corps should be liquidated not later than June 30, 1943.

The camps normally enrolled unmarried males between 17 and 23 years of age who were unemployed and in need of employment. In addition and to a limited extent, the program was also extended to Indians and war veterans, and to youth in Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The enrollees received board, clothing, living quarters, medical care, and an opportunity to earn $30 in cash per month. A few received a somewhat higher pay.

The camps, usually located in areas removed from cities, undertook work projects which of themselves were in the nature of vocational education. Added vocational training was evident in the jobs about the camp involved with preparation of food, sanitation, building facilities, and the necessary paper work. During leisure time, and later during time set aside for education, classes were conducted in a variety of subjects. These extended from vocational education as related to the work projects and unrelated vocational fields, to high school subjects, elementary school subjects, correspondence courses, arts and crafts, music, and even to attendance at public schools in the locality of the camps. With the meager resources at hand, particularly in the early years of the CCC, much improvisation was evident. In the first years of the Corps the annual allotment for educational equipment and supplies was sixty cents per year per enrollee. There was much variation in program and emphasis from camp to camp, de-

pendent upon resources available in work projects, personnel, and facilities.

Of the over 3,000,000 men who were enrolled between January 1, 1934, and June 30, 1941, ninety per cent, or over 2,700,000 had participated in some type of organized class or educational activity. Seventy-two per cent participated in job-training activities; 45 per cent in vocational classes; 36 per cent in academic classes; and 14 per cent in informal educational activities. In this period 101,125 illiterates were taught to read and write; 25,225 qualified for eighth grade diplomas, 5,007 for high school diplomas, and 270 for college degrees. Between 1933 and 1941 nearly three billion dollars was expended on the CCC. The highest yearly expenditure was $593,466,402 in 1936.[4]

2. *The National Youth Administration.* The NYA was established within the Works Progress Administration in 1935,[5] was transferred to the Federal Security Agency in 1939, and to the War Manpower Commission in 1942. Its purpose was to provide work training for unemployed youth and part-time employment for needy students so that they might continue their education. In a message to Congress in 1939,[6] President Roosevelt stated that the major purpose was "to extend the educational opportunities of the youth of the country and to bring them through the processes of training into the possession of skills" which would "enable them to find employment." As with the CCC, its program was initiated primarily for work relief, but rapidly it changed emphasis to education.

The NYA was strictly a federally operated and administered program. Most of its activities were involved either with: (1) out-of-school work projects (divided into two categories—resident projects and non-resident projects); or (2) student work projects.

The out-of-school work program reached a peak employment

[4] For statistics in this paragraph see: Library of Congress Legislative Reference Service, *The Civilian Conservation Corps.* 77th Cong., 2nd sess., S. D. No. 216, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1942, p. 70 and p. 137.

[5] 48 Stat. 115.

[6] Congressional Record, Vol. 84, p. 4710.

of about 470,000 youth in February 1941. The previous peak had been about 335,000 in February and March of 1940.[7]

Of this number about ten per cent were in resident centers which were operated on either a full-time or part-time basis. Most resident centers employed youth from within the state where the center was located, although a few regional centers were operated. In August 1940 there were 600 such resident centers providing full-time programs of work and related study in mechanical work, agriculture, health and hospital work, homemaking, construction, and other projects.[8] Related training given by state and local educational authorities was often included. With the need for skilled workers in defense, the program shifted considerable of its emphasis in this direction during the immediate pre-war months. At the full-time centers the youth employees were employed in work projects an average of 90 hours per month and were paid at an average rate of about 25 cents per hour. After deductions for maintenance, usually the worker had about eight to ten dollars per month for his own use.[9]

The non-resident out-of-school work program employed youth on community projects sponsored by local public authorities. In practice these fell into five classifications: construction; conservation and sanitation; workshops; clerical and semi-professional; and school and home service. The young people worked only part-time, the average being 55 hours per month in 1939–40. Some of the spare time was devoted to "related training" courses, until 1940 operated by the NYA and by the Office of Education following that date.

As both the NYA and the Office of Education were conducting programs involved with national defense training considerable

[7] National Resources Planning Board, *Report of the Committee on Long-Range Work and Relief Policies*, "Security, Work, and Relief Policies," 1942, p. 265.

[8] White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*, 1940, p. 248.

[9] National Resources Planning Board, *Report of the Committee on Long-Range Work and Relief Policies*, p. 270.

conflict in jurisdiction developed, culminating in an agreement signed by the administrators of each program in July of 1940. In brief, it was agreed that the NYA should furnish needy youth with employment and the training "incidental to and a part of such employment," but should not operate "schools and training programs as such"; that the Office of Education should work "regularly and officially with and through State departments of education, institutions of higher learning and local school systems" to "exercise leadership in developing and in administering federally financed programs of education, including emergency training programs." [10] In October of 1940 Congress recognized the validity of this agreement by transferring $7,500,000 of the $40,000,000 budget estimate of the NYA to the Office of Education.

The act which appropriated $32,500,000 to the NYA stipulated that:

> . . . all training or educational programs for youth employed by the National Youth Administration on work projects shall be under the control and supervision of the State boards for vocational education of the several states and shall be paid for out of appropriations made to the Office of Education and expended by the States pursuant to plans submitted by State boards for vocational education and approved by the Commissioner of Education.[11]

This jurisdictional friction stemmed primarily from the fact that the NYA established federally operated schools in some cases paralleling local facilities, and without co-ordination through existing state educational agencies. This led to the claim that the program was an infringement on the prerogatives of the regularly constituted educational system, and that it developed a needless duplication of facilities.

The NYA student work program provided funds to educational institutions for the part-time employment of needy students. This operated in secondary schools, colleges and universities, and

[10] Educational Policies Commission, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration, and The Public Schools*, Washington, D.C., 1941, p. 28.

[11] Act of Oct. 9, 1940, *Public No. 812*, 76th Cong., 3rd sess., Ch. 780, p. 6.

graduate schools. The work projects, under the general direction of the school authorities, involved departmental assistance, construction and maintenance, clerical assistance and service, and semi-professional assistance. The projects, usually in the educational institutions, were often related to the studies of the students. A rather minimal hourly wage was paid, varying in accordance with prevailing rates in different parts of the country. College students normally worked about 40 hours per month and high school students 20 hours per month. The maximum employment under this program was 482,000 in April 1940.[12]

The total annual federal allocations and appropriations for the NYA reached a peak of $157,159,000 in the year ending June 30, 1941.[13] In the rather typical year of 1939–40 the appropriation for the NYA was $100,000,000 plus the unexpended balances of the previous year. Of this sum about $5,000,000 was spent for federal administration in Washington and in the states, approximately $67,000,000 for the out-of-school work program, and over $27,000,000 for the student work program.[14] The program was liquidated by January 1, 1944.

### *B. Miscellaneous Federal Educational Activities during the Depression*

It is difficult, and furthermore unnecessary, to enumerate all of the emergency educational activities of the federal government which were initiated during the depression period. Two programs, illustrative of policy and procedure, are here included. The administrative relationship with the previously existing educational agencies, both on the federal level and in states and communities, varied, but in general it may be said that these existing agencies were by-passed. Usually the projects were conducted

[12] National Resources Planning Board, *Report of the Committee on Long-Range Work and Relief Policies*, p. 270.

[13] Educational Policies Commission, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration and The Public Schools*, p. 21.

[14] National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development Report for 1943*, January 1943, p. 66.

by "non-educational" federal agencies directly with communities or local school systems.

1. *Works Progress Administration.* The Federal Emergency Relief Administration, established in 1933, distributed relief funds to states and determined the activities for which these funds could be expended. Among approved projects were many related to education, including adult education, nursery schools, vocational rehabilitation, and employment of unemployed teachers who were assigned to rural schools closed for lack of funds. During the period from 1933 to 1935 many educational projects were undertaken, including federal aid totaling about $22,000,000 to provide funds to keep schools open in many rural areas.[15]

In 1935 the program was radically changed by discontinuance of payments to states and the development of a completely federal program. The Works Progress Administration (changed to Work Projects Administration in 1939) was responsible for the new program. Its activities were developed in most communities of the country, and its educational projects were numerous, including: construction and repair of school buildings, libraries, and recreational facilities; numerous research and records projects related to education; library projects; literacy and naturalization classes; workers' education; public affairs education; education for home and family living; vocational education; education in avocational and leisure-time activities; nursery schools; and correspondence instruction.

The following figures are illustrative of its activities. Through December of 1940 almost 5,000 schools had been built and 30,000 improved. During January of 1941, 1,000,000 adults and 37,000 children were enrolled in classes and nursery schools; over 280,000 persons received music instruction, and over 67,000 received art instruction. Since the beginning of WPA about 600,000,000 school lunches had been served.[16] By 1940 the WPA had made

[15] The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee,* 1938, p. 36.

[16] National Resources Planning Board, *Report of the Committee on Long-Range Work and Relief Policies,* p. 342 footnote.

possible more than $250,000,000 in school building construction.[17] The WPA was liquidated in the early 1940's.

2. *Public Works Administration.* The PWA, originally the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, was established in 1933. It assisted in building all types of public works. Through it many grants were made for educational buildings, the PWA paying 45 per cent (initially 30 per cent) of the cost of construction, and loaning some or all of the remainder. The extent of its activities may be judged by the fact that, by April 1940, it had made possible nearly $1,000,000,000 worth of school buildings.[18]

## II. Educational Activities for National Defense and War

It became evident as early as 1938 that the educational resources of the nation were essential to prepare for defense. During the next few years many emergency educational programs were initiated or expanded by federal agencies, and the schools and colleges of the country went through a reconversion to equip men and women for adequate participation in the war effort. The military establishment developed the largest program of adult education this country had ever known. Some typical federal educational activities which concerned the regularly constituted educational program of the states are given below.

### *A. Major Defense and War Activities of the United States Office of Education*

1. *Vocational Training of War Production Workers.* In the interval between April 1939 and May 1940 the Office of Education and Army representatives made an inventory of the equipment and training capacity of the public vocational schools of the

[17] White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, *Final Report*, 1940, p. 170.

[18] The same, p. 176.

nation. It was anticipated that the vocational schools might be a major factor in training skilled workers for the defense industries. These schools had been established by the states through the impetus of federal co-operation under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts. The inventory disclosed over 1,000 vocational schools available, well staffed and equipped, and able to train individuals by scores of thousands.[19] On June 27, 1940, $15,000,000 was appropriated for the purpose of operating the defense training program.[20] Plans had been so well laid that by July 1, 1940, hundreds of vocational schools were in operation under this program with enrollments of approximately 75,000 trainees during the month.[21]

The program was administered by using the same channels and organization available for the federal-state co-operative program of vocational education, with such expansions in personnel as needed. The Office of Education administered the federal phases of this activity, dealing through the state boards for vocational education with the vocational schools in local school systems.

The federal government paid the cost of instruction, and equipment was to be purchased only after specific proposals were approved by the Office of Education. States contributed use of previously available buildings and equipment and services of certain types of personnel. During the five years during which the program operated, $296,703,139.34 of federal money was distributed to the states for operation of the program.[22]

Training centers in the number of 2,600 were operated. Specific short unit courses were used to prepare men and women for entrance into war plant employment (pre-employment courses) or to prepare individuals already in war industries for more advanced production skills (supplementary courses). The distribu-

[19] Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, *Vocational Training for War Production Workers—Final Report*, Bulletin No. 10, 1946, p. 8.

[20] P.L. No. 668, 1940.

[21] U.S. Office of Education, *Vocational Training for War Production Workers—Final Report*, p. 19.

[22] The same, p. 176.

tion of the almost 7,500,000 who received instruction under this program is as follows:

TABLE 7. ENROLLMENT IN PRE-EMPLOYMENT AND SUPPLEMENTARY COURSES IN TRAINING FOR WAR PRODUCTION WORKERS FROM JULY 1, 1940 TO JUNE 30, 1945 *

| Item | Pre-employment | Supplementary |
|---|---|---|
| Automotive services | 70,698 | 99,164 |
| Aviation services | 655,856 | 1,161,806 |
| Electrical services | 52,206 | 62,595 |
| Forging | 7,802 | 3,861 |
| Foundry | 19,265 | 13,461 |
| Machine shop | 764,056 | 456,709 |
| Radio services | 83,473 | 171,785 |
| Sheetmetal work | 74,217 | 24,797 |
| Shipbuilding | 436,930 | 970,056 |
| Welding | 287,484 | 230,686 |
| Other | 211,462 | 1,607,137 |
| Total | 2,663,449 | 4,802,057 |

* U.S. Office of Education, *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency, Section Two*, 1945, p. 32.

In passing it should be mentioned that considerable production of war-needed items was done incidental to training. These items included jigs, ventilation ducts, radio chassis, vices, small tools, milling machines, drill presses, shapers, lathes, and a variety of special tools. One state estimated a value of almost $2,000,000 in items so produced.

There was considerable evidence of close co-operation with industry and with other governmental agencies in the conduct of this program.

2. *Rural War Production Training Program.*[23] This program was inaugurated in October 1940 by Public Law 812 of the Seventy-Sixth Congress, Third Session. Initially concerned with training of farm youth not needed on farms in elementary skills sufficient to enable them to secure employment in defense in-

[23] Digested from: U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Rural War Production Training Program, Final Report*, Bulletin No. 11, 1946.

dustries, the program soon changed emphasis to production of food crops. More than 8,000 local secondary schools, through their departments of vocational education, participated in the program.

The administration of this activity was by the Office of Education through the state boards for vocational education as in the case of the Defense Training Program described above. Federal sums appropriated were $63,000,000 for the slightly less than five years during which the program operated. The actual expenditure was well within this figure.

Activities included: a nation-wide farm machinery repair training program for adult farmers; short unit courses in production and conservation of food crops; school-community canneries for conservation and processing of foods; and training of farm laborers. The NYA furnished labor to build about 1,000 school farm shops for the program.

Enrollment in the program exceeded 4,000,000 individuals, distributed according to the table presented below.

TABLE 8. ENROLLMENT IN RURAL WAR PRODUCTION TRAINING COURSES TO MAY 31, 1945 *

| Course | Enrollment |
|---|---|
| Shop courses | 826,058 |
| Farm machinery repair | 1,315,999 |
| Food production | 514,125 |
| Food processing | 1,514,095 |
| Training farm workers | 104,340 |
| Total | 4,188,553 |

* U.S. Office of Education, *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency, Section Two*, 1945, p. 17.

The food processing program was continued after the normal closing date of the program (May 31, 1945) through December of 1945, by a transfer of funds from the War Food Administration. The extent of this phase of the program may be judged by the fact that, during this brief interval, May to December 1945, nearly 30,000,000 quarts of food were canned and nearly 2,400,000 pounds of food were otherwise processed.

3. *Engineering, Science, and Management War Training.*[24] This program, established in October of 1940, utilized the facilities of the colleges and universities of the country to train technical specialists for the defense and war effort just as the vocational schools were used in training workers. The activity was administered by the U.S. Office of Education, dealing directly with higher educational institutions. The federal government expended nearly $60,000,000 on the program between its initiation and its close on June 30, 1945.

More than 1,500,000 men and women received training through the ESMWT. The courses were conducted mostly by colleges of engineering, re-imbursed on a cost basis, and were designed to meet definite and specific technical competency needs of war industry. Through short, intensive, college-level courses the program retrained graduate engineers to perform new and specialized tasks and trained other technicians, draftsmen, inspectors, testers, and engineering assistants. Soon the program was extended to include training in the fields of physics, chemistry, and production supervision.

As far as possible, consistent with law, the administration of the program was decentralized to the participating colleges and universities. In effect the Office of Education took the point of view that this was a program of the institutions, assisted by the Office. This program terminated on June 30, 1945.

4. *Student War Loans Program.*[25] In order to bolster the diminishing supply of available persons in engineering, physics, chemistry, medicine (including veterinary), dentistry, and pharmacy, the Congress authorized $5,000,000 for loans to students in these areas in 1942. The accelerated program in colleges and universities had demanded the full time of students, making it practically impossible for them to be employed while studying.

[24] Digested from: Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, *Engineering, Science and Management War Training, Final Report,* Bulletin No. 9, 1946.

[25] Digested from: U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Student War Loans, Final Report,* Bulletin No. 14, 1946.

Only students within two years of graduation received loans not to exceed $500 per student in any one year, with interest at two and one-half per cent per annum. The borrower agreed to complete the program and, upon graduation, to accept employment as directed by the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. Provision was made for the repayment of the loans.

Loan funds were allocated to approved institutions by formula, and much of the administration was delegated by the Office of Education to the institutions.

For the period 1942–44 during which time student loans were granted, over 11,000 students in 286 colleges benefited from the program. The total in loans amounted to $3,327,601.32, approximately forty per cent of which went to students in medicine, 32 per cent in engineering, 11 per cent in dentistry, 7 per cent in chemistry, 4 per cent each in veterinary and pharmacy, and 2 per cent in physics.[26] In 1946 it was reported that "the Student War Loan borrowers have in general met their obligations promptly." [27]

*B. Selected Defense and War Activities of "Non-Educational" Federal Agencies*

1. *Educational Activities under the Lanham Act.*[28] Although activity under this program had not yet entirely ceased in fiscal 1949, the program is included here because it was war-incurred and is generally conceded to be non-permanent.

The Lanham Act [29] of 1941 provided for financial aid to communities where the presence of a war-incurred federal activity

[26] U.S. Office of Education, *Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency, Section Two,* 1945, p. 12.

[27] U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Student War Loans, Final Report,* Bulletin No. 14, 1946, p. 9.

[28] Major source of data: James Winfred Edgar, *A Study of Federal Assistance to Schools Under the Lanham Act,* unpublished doctoral thesis presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of The University of Texas, Austin, Texas, June 1947.

[29] 55 Stat. 361.

had created financial burdens which the community could not be expected to bear. Under this authority considerable educational aid has been given. The act was preceded by a study made by the U.S. Office of Education, through state departments of education, at the request of the War and Navy Departments. From 1941 to June 30, 1947, a total of more than $187,000,000 was spent on programs of: (1) school construction and equipment; (2) school maintenance and operation assistance; and (3) child care.

*a. Administration.* Administration of the act was vested in the Federal Works Agency. Responsibility for advising on all educational phases of the program was given to the U.S. Office of Education. The Federal Works Agency undertook to deal directly with local school districts rather than through state agencies. Shortly after the program started, state educational officials objected to this practice, claiming that distribution of assistance was not always in accord with priority of war-incurred need. As a result the Appropriation Act of 1943 [30] specified that no funds for education should be expended without prior consultation with the U.S. Office of Education and the state department of education involved. The final determination of allocation of funds remained with the Federal Works Agency, however, and in many instances the recommendations of these educational agencies were not followed. With the end of the war the U.S. Office of Education terminated its part in the program.

*b. School construction program.* Federal funds were used to finance, in whole or in part, the construction of new school buildings. Those financed entirely by the government were federally owned (and leased without cost to school districts) while those largely financed locally were turned over to the school districts. The last schools to be constructed were completed in 1945–46. Under the school construction program 1,239 school plants were built at a cost of $84,279,262 to the federal government. Five hundred thirty-eight of these were built entirely with federal funds; to the cost of the other 701 local sources contributed about

[30] 57 Stat. 565.

$18,000,000. The disposal of these federally owned properties to school districts is now under way. By June 30, 1947, 118 had been so liquidated with a return to the government of about 25 per cent of original cost.

*c. Maintenance and operation assistance.* Funds were provided to compensate school districts for education of children living on non-taxable federal reservations, and in temporary war housing when federal payments in lieu of taxes were insufficient to meet costs. In other localities where the tax base was reduced by federal purchase of land and facilities and where there had been an influx of war workers, funds were made available for the operation of schools. Nursery schools to provide for the children of mothers working in war industry were also operated with funds from this act. During the six-year period ending June 30, 1947, 828 schools received for maintenance and operation federal funds totaling $51,550,837. Average attendance at these 828 schools was about 200,000 more pupils than during the last normal year of operation; federal assistance, therefore, averaged about $43 per year per war-additional pupil.

*d. Child care program.* The primary purpose of the child care program under the Lanham Act was the provision of facilities for the children of working mothers in order that more women workers might become available for war activity. Nursery schools and child care centers came to a total of 829, with a peak attendance in nursery schools of 73,760 and in child care centers of 76,917. More than 550,000 children are estimated to have received care at one time or another, at a total cost to the federal government of $51,922,977.

Since the war this activity under the Lanham and subsequent acts has been diminishing. In 1945–46, $12,180,403 was expended to assist 361 school districts. The appropriation was $7,000,000 in 1946–47 and $5,000,000 in 1947–48, the latter to assist 116 school districts. In 1947, 193 school districts were aided which had an average daily attendance of 405,955 pupils. $6,688,722 was obligated in aid to these schools. Administrative obligations were $215,000. Schools in Georgia were provided

with $1,090,585, while schools in 19 states and territories received no funds. In 1949, $3,000,000 is available for this program.

2. *Miscellaneous Activities Affecting Colleges and Universities.* Space does not permit a detailed description of the numerous war activities of the federal government which were carried out through the colleges and universities of the country. A few are only very briefly mentioned here.

Many colleges and universities throughout the country were under contract with the Civil Aeronautics Authority of the Department of Commerce to train pilots subsequent to the passing of the Civilian Pilot Training Act of 1939.[31] The CAA reimbursed these institutions on a full cost of instruction basis for courses in ground school subjects and for flight training. The purposes of this program were to provide a reservoir of pilots to supplement in time of emergency the trained personnel of the military forces and to stimulate private flying. After June 1942 the trainees were limited to military personnel. The annual appropriation started with $5,675,000 and was greatly increased after the program was limited to military personnel, the total being $72,677,450 for 1943. Over 100,000 pilots were trained from 1939 through 1942.[32] By 1941 contracts had been made with some 600 colleges and universities. The total of federal appropriations from 1939 through 1944 (when discontinued) was $229,000,000.[33]

Early in the war the Army Specialized Training Program was established, utilizing the staffs and facilities of about 200 colleges and universities across the country. Enlisted men were sent by the Army to these institutions to pursue studies in engineering,

[31] 53 Stat. 855

[32] Public Affairs Bulletin No. 30, *High Lights in the Development of Federal Policies and Activities in Education*, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress, April 1944, p. 3 and p. 20.

[33] Report from the Committee on Education, House of Representatives, Pursuant to H. Res. 63, A Resolution Authorizing a Study by the Committee on Education of the Effect of Certain War Activities upon Colleges and Universities, 79th Cong., 1 sess., House Report No. 214, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1945, pp. 34–35.

medicine, chemistry, linguistics, mathematics, physics, and other fields, in combination with other regular liberal studies of the curriculum. The program was based on long-range social needs as well as upon immediate military needs. Under the ASTP, the enlisted men received regular Army pay, food, clothes, books, and rooms, and the Army paid tuition to the colleges and universities.[34] The ASTP contracts totaled over $9,000,000 and the closely allied Army programs in medical, dental, and veterinary training involved contracts totaling over $35,000,000.[35]

Several other programs with certain similarities to the ASTP were in operation, including the Navy College Training Program, Army Air Forces College Training, and Navy Air Forces Program. On October 1, 1943, these four programs enrolled 212,528 men in 628 colleges and universities.[36]

Under the Navy V–12 program a quota of selected men were enlisted as apprentice seamen and sent to designated colleges for specialized curricula while on active duty. Contracts for the program totaled over $134,000,000.[37]

Many higher institutions of the country were used directly by the military forces for training units in specialized fields such as military government. Other institutions were under contract to furnish specialized instruction such as for Army Air Forces weather officers.

The Armed Forces Institute, a large correspondence school operated for both the Army and Navy, gave courses in supplemental military instruction and in regular high school and college

[34] Public Affairs Bulletin No. 30, April 1944, p. 37.

[35] Forthcoming publication (1948), *The War and Higher Education*, joint authors Henry C. Herge, Edward C. Elliott, Sidney L. Pressey, Raymond J. Connolly, and Gordon L. Chalmers. "Financial Aspects of the College Training Programs" by Raymond J. Connolly, Chapter VIII. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

[36] American Council on Education, *Higher Education and National Defense*, December 9, 1943, p. 1.

[37] American Council on Education, *The War and Higher Education*, Chapter VIII by Raymond J. Connolly, "Financial Aspects of the College Training Programs."

subjects. The staffs of higher institutions assisted in preparing many of these courses and in evaluating the work of students. Subsequently much of this study has been accepted for credit towards graduation and degrees in the various educational institutions of the country.

From 1943 to 1945 the Public Health Service administered a program in subsidizing individuals to train as nurses.

Extensive and invaluable research projects were conducted with federal support, a total of $82,255,493 of federal moneys being spent through universities and colleges for this purpose during the 18 months following March 1943.[38]

Without further illustrations or elaboration, suffice it to state that all major higher institutions of the country, and many smaller ones, were deeply involved in the war enterprise. The federal government found the resources of the colleges and universities of the country invaluable in the war effort. Without detracting from the value of this entire program in its large contribution to the war, it must be stated that without these federal projects many of these higher institutions would have been hard pressed to maintain their programs. A number of the projects, either openly or tacitly, were designed to make it possible, with federal support, for the higher institutions of the country to survive the period of low enrollments of the war period. This became a matter of federal concern.

## III. Summary

The federal government increasingly found education to be a worthy and practical avenue for various of its activities designed to reduce the detrimental impact of the depression on individuals. Through increase and improvement of local school facilities and through instruction of youth in institutions which were federally administered in the states much was accomplished. The confusion caused by overlapping federal jurisdictions in these activities and by the tendency to disregard existing channels through

[38] The same, p. 35.

which the regularly constituted educational programs of the country have been developed raises several questions relative to the manner in which these projects were carried out. Had not World War II come upon us, it is quite probable that the NYA, and possibly the CCC, would have been continued as permanent projects of the federal government, thus giving us a dual system of schools, one operated by states and another operated by the federal government. The worthiness of purpose is not denied. The worthiness of method by which this purpose was carried out, however, is open to question.

The advent of World War II found the regular educational institutions in the states able to contribute much to the war effort, particularly in research and in the training of personnel for defense and war activities. These resources were utilized extensively for federal activities administered by various agencies of the government.

From these war activities it is apparent that there is a growing realization that the welfare of educational institutions in the states is closely allied with the national interest. That these institutions, having been "discovered" by the various agencies of the federal government during the war, are increasingly being utilized by these agencies will be pointed out in a later chapter.

Another observation of significance concerns increased federal recognition of its responsibility to care for the education of children on federal reservations or in localities where children have congregated due to a federal enterprise. The close of the war found the federal government more deeply tied in with problems of elementary, secondary, and higher education than ever before. The next three chapters will be devoted largely to a classification and discussion of these.

# *Chapter 5.* FEDERAL ACTIVITIES CLEARLY CONCERNING ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

In previous chapters, brief descriptive statements have been given for practically all federal activities in the field of education and more detailed accounts have been presented for a number of the more important of these programs which are conducted through federal-state co-operation. This chapter will be devoted to those federal activities which are specifically involved with elementary and secondary education. Immediately following chapters will be devoted to those programs specifically involved with higher education and activities which cannot be segregated by elementary-secondary and higher education levels. These chapters must be consulted if one is to understand the complete federal impact on elementary and secondary schools.

The cautions concerning use of data which were noted at the first of Chapter 2 will apply with equal emphasis to this chapter. Even though the following tables present totals, care must be observed in their use, primarily because fiscal figures for the various activities may not be comparable and because in many instances totals do not include those activities for which figures are not available.

## I. Promotion of Curricula

Traditionally the development of curriculum has always in this country been considered a function for state or local jurisdiction. Notwithstanding this fact, the federal government has had five readily identifiable programs (four of which are currently active)

in promotion of special curricular fields which are generally available to the regularly constituted elementary and secondary schools of the country. These programs, with the inclusion of the federal administrative funds in connection with vocational education, are included in the following table.

TABLE 9. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION TO PROMOTE CURRICULA IN SPECIAL FIELDS AND GENERALLY AVAILABLE TO THE REGULARLY CONSTITUTED ELEMENTARY AND/OR SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE COUNTRY

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Justice (Immigration and Naturalization Service) | Citizenship education | 21 | 99 | 37 | 22 |
| Commerce (Civil Aeronautics Administration) | Promotion of aviation education | NA | 160 | 101 | 127 |
| Treasury (Savings Bonds Division) | School savings program | NA | 200 | 226 | 251 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Administration of vocational education | NA | 489 | 487 | 511 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Vocational education grants to states | 20,297 | 20,639 | 26,619 | 27,128 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Education in food conservation | — | 836 | — | — |
| Total ..... | ..... | 20,318+ | 22,423 | 27,470 | 28,039 |

Reference is made to more detailed description of these activities in Chapter 2 and, for certain ones, Chapter 3. It will be noted that four federal agencies are concerned with these special areas of curricula generally available to elementary and secondary schools. The first four activities listed in the table are carried on at the federal level in furnishing materials or assistance to the regular schools, while the last two activities listed are grants to states. Education in food conservation was discontinued in 1947.

The manner in which the agencies involved promote these

special curricular fields should be considered. If they develop specific textbooks and teaching materials, they infringe on the rights of the states in this respect. A possible exception is noted in the citizenship education program of the Department of Justice for which the development of specific and curricular textbook materials in anticipation of United States citizenship is a matter of federal concern. However, the actual development of texts for classroom use such as has sometimes been done in the promotion of aviation education and the school savings programs is a direct violation of our well-developed tradition of state curricular responsibility.

The grants to states for vocational education and for education in food conservation, insofar as they leave the primary initiative for the details of internal administration, supervision, and curricular content to the states, are justifiable activities of the federal government. It should not be assumed, however, that entire responsibility for these programs could be given to the states without assurance on the part of the federal government that the purposes for which funds are appropriated are carried out by the states. Thus it is necessary to maintain such federal controls as may be needed to ensure that the federal purpose is actually attained.

We would not deny the schools in the states access to the rich reservoir of technical help and curricular resource material available at the federal level for assistance to the states in curricular development. In fact, we would insist that such assistance be made available when needed or desired by the states. The federal development of curricular resource material, other aids for teachers, and even the promotion of these in states where such services are desired is a justifiable governmental activity. In these respects, all of the programs of Table 9 have made effective contribution. The fine dividing line, however, between detailed curricular development by the federal government and assistance to the states should be recognized. While the former is not justified, the latter is. If the states are to be strong educationally, they must not have curricular spoon-feeding by the federal gov-

ernment. Rather they must be given assistance within the resources of the government towards development, administration, and supervision of their own curricular programs.

More serious than the criticisms indicated above is the criticism that the federal government has been interested only in the promotion of highly specialized fields within the curriculum. Is it appropriate that the federal government should extend its substantial influence on curriculum only in the promotion of these few highly specialized areas? Can the government afford to be placed in the position of lending its prestige to these few areas with neglect (except for a few generalized services of the U.S. Office of Education) to the total curricular need of the country? Can we as a nation allow more and more agencies of the government to develop unco-ordinated specialized curricula? We believe these questions must be answered in the negative.

It is apparent that we have overlapping and independent curricular promotion on the federal level. It has no semblance of the over-all curricular co-ordination which is considered essential at state and local educational levels. As other agencies of the government realize the potency of the public schools of the country in promoting their individual causes, this situation could easily become chaotic.

Several solutions seem possible. A centralization of all activities in the promotion of curricula could be accomplished by placing all in the federal educational agency. Such, however, although good from an organization point of view, would deny the wealth of technical knowledge in the non-educational federal agencies. It would also eliminate much desirable and well-developed initiative which should be utilized in specialized areas of the curriculum.

Another solution would involve over-all federal co-ordination, with utilization of the various governmental agencies. In the light of all factors, this seems to be the most appropriate solution. All present federal activities in promotion of elementary or secondary curriculum should be transferred to the federal educational agency, and this agency in turn should be a co-ordinating and

clearinghouse body for the specialties of the non-educational agencies. The federal government, through its various departments and agencies, has some of the most competent specialists available in this country in practically every area of human interest and concern. These areas constitute those which, to a large extent, make up the curricula in our schools and areas from which a curriculum more vital to individuals and our society can be developed. Avenues should be opened whereby these federal resources may be co-ordinated and made available to the schools of our country when services are needed by states.

## II. The School Lunch Program

A special section is devoted to the school lunch program because of its magnitude, significance, and the fact that it is the only program of its type by the federal government. It constitutes a special service generally available to the regularly constituted elementary and secondary schools of the country. It has been described more fully in Chapter 3. Federal funds for this program increased between 1940 and 1949 from $12,646,000 to $92,200,000.

Table 10. The Federal School Lunch Program, a Special Service Generally Available to the Regularly Constituted Elementary and Secondary Schools of the Country

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Agriculture (Production and Marketing Administration) | School lunch program | 12,646 | 81,903 | 87,200 | 92,200 |
| Total | | 12,646 | 81,903 | 87,200 | 92,200 |

This activity, administered by the Production and Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture, distributes scores of millions of dollars to the schools of the nation. In addi-

tion, federally purchased food is distributed to schools. It was initiated on a more modest basis during the depression period of the 1930's as a justifiable avenue for the proper use of surplus agricultural commodities and to furnish work to unemployed. Three major groups in American life have stimulated its development: the agricultural groups, the educational group, and others interested in the physical well-being of children. Much of the confusion and lack of clarity of this program may be due to this three-fold interest therein. It is not appropriate that the study in the field of education should arrive at a conclusion as to whether it is necessary to support prices of farm commodities through this program, particularly in times of high economic return. Suffice it to say that, when it becomes necessary to the agricultural economy for the federal government to purchase surplus food, this program is an extremely worthy one for disposition of such commodities. It is better to furnish nutritious food to children than to destroy food crops. However, to the extent that this program utilizes those foods which are surplus or in abundance, it runs the risk of violating basic principles involved in developing a well-rounded diet. Parenthetically, it should be pointed out that the act is not limited to agricultural foods. The abundant foods list from the Department of Agriculture for June 1948 in connection with the school lunch program included, among other things, fresh and frozen fish, a non-agricultural food product.

There are those groups who are quite insistent that the school lunch program is not an educational activity. Some of this insistence may have been prompted by the fact that assistance under this program is extended to private and parochial schools. By calling the program non-educational, we avoid the dilemma of federal educational assistance to non-profit private, including parochial, schools. No good can come from an extended and academic discussion of this question in this connection. The fact is that thus far in our national history we have maintained a rather rigid policy of no federal aid to parochial schools. This problem, within limits, up to now has been left to the states to decide.

It will have been noted that the school lunch program furnishes assistance to non-profit private and parochial schools through state channels in states which permit this, and that the U.S. Department of Agriculture deals directly with such schools in states which prohibit this.

Actually, whether or not this program is called educational, it operates in public, private, and parochial schools. In any event, because in the large majority of cases its operations are through public schools and through state departments of education, it is believed desirable regardless of name that its general administration and grant-in-aid activities be moved to the federal educational agency. State and local school officials need redress from their complaint that they are forced to deal with too many federal agencies in the conduct of their programs. Unless evidence is clear-cut to the contrary, it is our opinion that all federal activities involved with the regular elementary and secondary schools of the country should be administered by the federal educational agency. The Office of Education has always followed the practice of placing as much initiative and responsibility for administration of federal programs as is possible on state departments of education. Non-educational federal agencies, many of which have been involved in direct action within states, often have found it difficult to understand this necessity of maximum centralization of educational responsibility and initiative at the state level. Assurance that dietary needs of children will be given priority over need for disposal of surplus foods or foods in abundance can be more permanently maintained if the program is administered by an educational agency. This would not preclude the utilization of surplus foods or foods in abundance as determined by the Department of Agriculture when and if such utilization is desirable. The schools of the country have always risen to emergencies in the national interest. The listing of foods in abundance for preferential purchase by schools and the purchase, warehousing, and distribution of foods in abundance should be retained by the Department of Agriculture. The federal educational agency should utilize the best resources available in the government in develop-

ing the nutrition and dietary aspects of the program. By proper co-ordination with the federal educational agency, it is believed that this program can be made more effective than at present, in the interests of all parties concerned.

The school lunch program should be thought of as a part of the total effective experience of the children in the schools. It should be correlated with proper instruction in dietary habits and nutrition. By placing its administration in the normal educational channels from the federal to the state and local levels, it is believed that the school lunch program can become a part of a valuable educational and instructional program. With the transfer of the grant-in-aid aspects of the program to the federal educational agency the prohibition specifically contained in the present act against any influence to the instruction or curricular program should be rescinded. Historically the Office of Education has for many years furnished assistance and encouragement to the states and the schools therein in respect to nutrition, dietary needs of children, and proper school lunches. Many publications had been issued long before the federal school lunch program was developed. The Office of Education for many years has been the federal source to which schools have looked for assistance in respect to school lunch programs. In addition to the thousands of schools which now share the federal subsidy for school lunches, there are other thousands of schools which operate school lunch programs without federal support. The U.S. Office of Education is expected to render advisory assistance to both groups and does so to a considerable measure. It is inconsistent that both the Office of Education and the Department of Agriculture should be called upon for similar services. The Office of Education is constantly being consulted by states for advisory assistance in the planning of school buildings, most of which include school lunch facilities. There is needless overlapping between the school lunch program of the Department of Agriculture and this activity of the Office of Education.

Many of the states with the current unprecedented fiscal demands upon them have found it extremely difficult to enable their

state departments of education to include the necessary administrative personnel to give proper administration and supervision to the school lunch program. This has sometimes resulted in necessity for the Department of Agriculture to make an undue number of local audits and render services which might better be left to state and local initiative. It is thus recommended that a small amount of school lunch subsidy be dedicated for state administration of the program. This would take the federal government out of some operations which might better be left to state jurisdiction and place more incentive for proper conduct of the program on the states where it belongs.

In summarizing, four recommendations are made: (1) the responsibility for the administration of the National School Lunch Act should be placed in the federal educational agency; except (2) the direct purchase and distribution of food for price support and the listing of foods in abundance for priority purchase, when necessary, should be retained in the Department of Agriculture; (3) a small subsidy should be available to state departments of education to insure proper state administration and supervision of the act (unless other means are available for adequate support of state departments of education); (4) the nutrition aspects of the program, although carried out by the federal educational agency, should be done with advisement from the best informed agency of the government in nutrition matters. We see little reason why, if the current manner of caring for the school lunch program in private schools is satisfactory in the Department of Agriculture, the same plan may not be operated just as effectively by the federal educational agency.

## III. General Educational Assistance to Specific Geographical Areas

There are three readily identifiable activities of the federal government concerned with giving general assistance for elementary and/or secondary schools in special geographical areas. These are indicated in the table which follows.

TABLE 11. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION GIVING GENERAL SUPPORT IN SPECIFIC GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS (NOT GENERALLY AVAILABLE) TO REGULARLY CONSTITUTED ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Agriculture (Forest Service) | Payments to New Mexico and Arizona | 23 | 39 | 73 | 73 |
| Interior (Government in the Territories) | Assistance to Alaska | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| Federal Works Agency (Bureau of Community Facilities) | Lanham Act Assistance | — | 6,904 | 4,500 | 3,000 |
| Total ..... | ..... | 73 | 6,993 | 4,623 | 3,123 |

In addition to the above, the federal government gives some assistance to special localities where government properties or federal reservations are located or where there is a special type of federal jurisdiction such as in the Panama Canal Zone and in occupied areas. These will be treated in the next section. In general, the federal assistance which is given to Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, other than the Alaskan account presented in the above table, is similar to that given to the states in connection with such activities as vocational education, school lunch, and vocational rehabilitation. It will have been noted in an earlier chapter that there is also some less easily identifiable general support for elementary and secondary education in special geographical areas in connection with income from federal reserves, forests, non-metallic mineral lands, and grazing lands, which accrues to states where such income is derived for the use of either roads or schools.

Of the three accounts mentioned in the above table, the Lanham Act is the only one which needs discussion except as one might raise a question as to why New Mexico, Arizona, and Alaska have

been given favored treatment in this respect. In this connection, the large tax-exempt federal holdings in these three localities may be ample justification for such special treatment. Although the Lanham Act was initiated purely as a war emergency measure, to render aid to communities overburdened by the war, it has been extended to cover post-war national defense-incurred situations by Congressional act from year to year. This is, in effect, a recognition on the part of the federal government of its responsibility to care for the education of children of families concentrated in areas when a federal interest has been responsible for that concentration and when local school facilities could not undertake the added burden. It is believed that a proper solution of this problem is closely related to the problem of education of children of federal employees on reservations, special federal jurisdictions, and federal properties. A comprehensive policy covering all of these situations is needed. This will be discussed in connection with the following section of this chapter.

Federal support of the District of Columbia does, to a given degree, represent general support to education in a special geographical area and thus should be mentioned at this point. In the District of Columbia the local government expenses are met in part by taxes levied on local taxpayers and in part by the taxpayers of the entire country. Of the total receipts for the government of the District of Columbia in 1947, the federal government contributed about 9.3 per cent. By applying this per cent to the $19,741,832 expended for schools, it could be roughly estimated that the federal government contributed approximately $1,835,990 to the schools of the District of Columbia that year.[1] To some extent this could be considered as a federal payment in lieu of taxes for the support of schools, as federal properties are tax exempt. It is believed that consideration should be given to granting more complete autonomy to local authorities and school officials in the administration of the District of Columbia schools.

[1] U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Federal Government Funds for Education, 1946–47 and 1947–48*, Leaflet No. 79, 1948.

## IV. Dependent Children of Federal Employees

The federal government is by far the largest land owner in this country. Both because of varying federal policies and varying state policies there is considerable confusion in reference to the education of children living on federal holdings. This section will be confined to those reservations and federally owned properties on which reside federally employed personnel with children of school age and closely related situations.

The problem is sizable and growing. Between 1935 and 1947 the number of children of school age involved increased from 24,000 to 56,000, and was estimated at almost 60,000 in 1948.[2] Because of the failure of the federal government to establish a comprehensive policy in respect to these children and the prevalent lack of state recognition of responsibility for the education of them, they often do not have the right to a free public education which is guaranteed to other children as a part of their birthright.

The lack of consistent federal policy is exemplified by opinions of the Comptroller of the Treasury and later by the Comptroller General. In 1917 it was ruled that schools could be established on reclamation projects. Federal funds for education of children of employees on the Hoover Dam project were denied in 1931 because of no statutory authority, although "there is generally recognized to be an obligation on the United States to provide for the education of children necessarily residing within Government reservations." Later the objection was removed. In the denial of a somewhat comparable expenditure in 1935 it was stated that "the education of children of Federal employees is not now and never has been regarded as a responsibility of the Federal

[2] Hearings before the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, 80th Cong., 1st sess., *Emergency Educational Aid for Government Reservations*, May 5 and 6, 1947; U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1947, Vol. 1, p. 81.

Government, but as a responsibility of the employees themselves and/or the local authorities." [3]

Variations in federal policy and administration in respect to education of children who reside on reservations and federally owned property are illustrated by programs in two governmental agencies as indicated below.

The Atomic Energy Commission has been authorized by Congress to assume rather complete responsibility for facilities and operations of education for children of its employees on two of its three large projects. It assumed less fiscal responsibility on its third project. At Los Alamos, New Mexico, the schools are operated by contract, although the Atomic Energy Commission pays all expenses. At Oak Ridge, Tennessee, the schools are financed entirely by the Atomic Energy Commission, but operated through a working arrangement with the local county school board. At Hanford, Washington, the schools are administered, and until recently almost entirely supported, by the state. By recent agreement, the Atomic Energy Commission has assumed considerable cost of operations, although it had already given the buildings.[4]

In 1947 the War Department reported about 300 military installations in the 48 states, on which resided over 16,000 children of school age. Post schools were maintained on 25 posts, 20 of which were supported by pupil tuitions or other contributions and 5 supported largely by Lanham Act funds. On remaining posts children were in local public schools, admitted free by specific state provisions or because of Lanham Act assistance, or upon payment of tuition. Twenty-eight per cent of the children attending school were in states which make specific provision for free education of children residing on Army reservations.[5] Although testimony before the Committee on Education and Labor, House

[3] Lloyd E. Blauch and William L. Iversen, *Education of Children on Federal Reservations*, Staff Study Number 17, Prepared for The Advisory Committee on Education, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1939, pp. 50–52.

[4] *Emergency Educational Aid for Government Reservations*, p. 60.

[5] The same, pp. 44–50.

of Representatives, in May 1947 stated that the remaining "72 per cent . . . live in states which assume no obligation for their education, and are paying tuition in local public schools, or attending private schools at their own expense,"[6] it is doubtful whether the subsequent statistical figures presented at the hearing will support this high a percentage. Regardless of the specific number, it is clear that even beyond those children for whom states pay all educational expenses by specific state provision, those which may have been admitted to public schools by the benevolence of other states, and those covered by emergency Lanham Act support, a substantial number of children living on Army posts are educated at the expense of their parents. Suffice it to say that there has been no consistent policy relative to the education of children on Army reservations.

What has been stated for the Atomic Energy Commission and the Army could be further illustrated from the many reservations operated by other federal agencies. It should be added that most of these agencies have expressed a desire, in one form or another, to improve the situation, and several bills to that end have been introduced in recent sessions of Congress. It has been felt by many individuals and groups cognizant of the problem that the education of these children should not be contingent upon the generosity of state and local taxpayers or a burden on the parents.

The states, similarly, have varying policies relative to children living on federal reservations and properties. Only ten states have provided any legislation to solve the problem, and in these the scope is limited. A résumé of legislation in these states follows:

*Illinois.*—The State provides tuition payments to local school agencies for children living in veterans hospitals or military encampment areas.

*Iowa.*—The State of Iowa assumes responsibility for paying costs of education of children living on Federally-owned property.

*Maine.*—Special arrangements may be made to provide elementary school privileges in cooperation with the United States Government for

[6] The same, p. 45.

a child or children residing with a parent or legal guardian at any light station, fog warning station, lifesaving station, or other place within a United States Government reservation, under such rules and regulations as may be made by the State commissioner of education and approved by the governor and council.

*Nebraska.*—Children of men in military service may attend public schools in Nebraska without paying tuition. Tuition payments are made to the local school agencies by the State of Nebraska from the general fund.

*New Jersey.*—The State of New Jersey provides $45 as State aid for each pupil coming to local schools who lives on a Federal reservation.

*New York.*—State aid is apportioned to local school agencies for children coming from military reservations in the same amount and upon the same conditions as other children in the district.

*Texas.*—The State board of education may establish independent school districts upon any military reservation in the State of Texas. State aid then will be apportioned to such a district as it is to others in the State.

*Vermont.*—The State of Vermont pays to local school agencies tuition for school children coming from Fort Ethan Allen Reservation.

*Virginia.*—Children living on Federal military or naval reservations in the State of Virginia are admitted to public schools without tuition charges.

*Washington.*—Children living on Federal reservations in the State of Washington are allowed to attend public schools, tuition free. The State assumes responsibility for payment of the education costs.[7]

In the absence of specific legislative provision to the contrary, the states have generally accepted the principle laid down by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in 1841 (1 Metcalf 580; Mass. 1841) which specified:

Persons who reside on lands purchased by or ceded to the United States for navy yards, forts, and arsenals, and where there is not other reservation of jurisdiction to the State than that of a right to serve civil and criminal process on such lands, are not entitled to the benefits of the common schools for their children in the towns in which the lands are situated—nor are they liable to be assessed for their polls and

[7] The same, p. 110.

estates to State, county, and town taxes, in such towns—nor do they gain a settlement in such towns, for themselves or their children, by residence for any length of time on such lands—nor do they acquire, by residing on such lands, any elective franchise as inhabitants of such towns.[8]

The Solicitor of the Bureau of Community Facilities of the Federal Works Agency has, for the purpose of determining responsibility of local bodies for providing public education to children of persons residing on government reservations, classified such reservations into four categories, as follows:

1. Where the federal government has exclusive jurisdiction over the reservation or property, the local government (state, territorial, or other) has no responsibility for providing educational facilities for children living on them.

2. Where the federal government has exclusive jurisdiction except for limited jurisdiction reserved to the state or territory ("such as the service of civil and criminal process"), the local government has no responsibility for providing educational facilities for children living on them.

3. Where the jurisdiction is part federal and part state or territorial, the state or territory having authority to levy taxes and other charges, the state or territory may be obligated to provide educational facilities for the children.

4. Where the federal jurisdiction is limited and the local jurisdiction is broad, the local government is responsible for providing educational facilities for the children.[9]

From this brief review it should be evident that there is considerable confusion and lack of comprehensive federal policy relative to the education of children living on reservations and federally owned properties. Although the federal government has no constitutional mandate to care for the education of these children, it is assumed that the accepted American principle that each child has a right to free public education should apply in these cases. The federal self-interest is also involved, as it is often

[8] The same, p. 111.
[9] The same, p. 112.

difficult to recruit employees on federal projects unless school facilities are available for the children of these individuals. Similarly, the transfer of employees with children from one installation to another is often complicated, as in the National Park Service.

Early in 1947 some thirteen agencies (at the request of several) met with representatives of the Office of Education in an attempt to ascertain the nature of the problem and to review possible solutions. As a result, twelve agencies with children living on properties under their jurisdiction sent out questionnaires. These agencies were: Atomic Energy Commission, Agriculture Department, Coast Guard, Maritime Commission, Navy Department, Tennessee Valley Authority, Veterans Administration, War Department, Bureau of Mines, National Park Service, Fish and Wildlife Service, and Bureau of Reclamation.[10] It should be noted that this did not include children living in housing projects of the FPHA or Indian children on Indian reservations. Replies to questionnaires were received from 1,036 reservations or federally owned properties operated by the agencies indicated in Table 12. Of the nearly 60,000 children estimated in Table 12, twenty-seven per cent were on federally owned properties where in general the states had some, though varying, responsibilities, while 73 per cent were on reservations where in general the states assumed no responsibility.[11]

As has been mentioned in preceding paragraphs, the Lanham Act has provided federal emergency assistance for education in a number of these situations. With the gradual withdrawal of Lanham Act assistance (see Chapter 4), in many cases the situation is becoming more acute.

A few further illustrations are pertinent. Schools in the Panama Canal Zone are operated almost entirely by Congressional appropriation, as is the post school of the United States Military Academy at West Point. In 1946 the Navy was given Congressional authorization to use funds to provide schooling and necessary transportation if "schools, if any, available in the locality

[10] The same, footnote p. 81.

[11] The same, p. 85.

TABLE 12. ESTIMATED NUMBER OF SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN WHO LIVED ON FEDERAL RESERVATIONS AND FEDERALLY OWNED PROPERTY DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR 1947–1948, IN THE SEVERAL STATES, HAWAII, ALASKA, AND PANAMA CANAL ZONE *

| Agency † | No. of reservations | Estimated no. school-age children |
|---|---|---|
| Atomic Energy Commission | 3 | 14,720 |
| Coast Guard (Treasury Department) | 123 | 378 |
| Interior Department: | | |
| Bureau of Mines | 4 | 109 |
| National Park Service | 23 | 755 |
| Fish and Wildlife Service | 170 | 847 |
| Bureau of Reclamation | 47 | 2,668 |
| Maritime Commission | 3 | 15 |
| Navy | 203 | 12,107 |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | 22 | 1,087 |
| Veterans Administration | 135 | 1,333 |
| War Department | 303 | 25,608 |
| Total | 1,036 | 59,627 |

* Hearings before the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, 80th Cong., 1st sess., *Emergency Educational Aid for Government Reservations*, May 5 and 6, 1947; U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1947, Vol. I, p. 84.

† Each agency included in this table sent questionnaires to all properties under its jurisdiction in February 1947 to obtain this information.

are not adequate for the welfare of dependents of personnel. . . ." [12] In 1947 it was reported that the Navy was providing funds for education on eight of its reservations.[13]

The Bureau of Reclamation pays a stated sum for education of children on the Hoover Dam and Grand Coulee projects, but has not followed this practice on its other projects.[14] On new construction projects, often in remote areas, the Bureau requires the contractor to furnish school facilities even though the children many times do not live on federal property, on the assumption that the new wealth eventually coming to the community from the project will not be available immediately for purposes of

[12] P.L. 604, 79th Cong.

[13] *Emergency Educational Aid for Government Reservations*, p. 146.

[14] The same, p. 146.

taxation.[15] The following provision appears in the 1949 Interior Department Appropriation Act, applying to the Bureau of Reclamation:

Payments (not to exceed the average per pupil cost in the state where construction is in progress) to school districts as reimbursement, while projects are actually under construction, for the instruction of dependents of employees of the Bureau of Reclamation and of contractors engaged on such projects: Provided, That a tuition charge of $25 per semester shall be charged and collected by the Bureau of Reclamation for each such dependent attending such schools.

Congress has provided for the education of children on certain Tennessee Valley Authority properties through in lieu of taxes payments to local agencies.[16] Schooling of children in the National Parks prior to 1948 has never received direct attention from Congress except temporarily under the Lanham Act.[17] Recently the Congress has given more consideration to certain of the National Parks.

The Comptroller General has ruled that children of federal employees on Indian reservations are not permitted to enroll in the government Indian schools, and no federal provision has been made for their education.[18]

The following table will indicate the readily identifiable activities of the federal government in furnishing elementary and secondary education to dependent children in these reservations and other federal properties and in occupied areas.

A comparison of Tables 12 and 15 will indicate little relationship between the amount of money expended and the number of children in the different agencies under federal jurisdiction. It will also be noted that a number of the agencies listed in Table 12 have identified no federal funds for this purpose.

In 1947 no federally appropriated moneys were used in the education of dependents of federal employees in occupied areas.

[15] *Education of Children on Federal Reservations*, p. 49.
[16] *Emergency Educational Aid for Government Reservations*, pp. 57–58.
[17] The same, p. 8.
[18] *Education of Children on Federal Reservations*, p. 76.

TABLE 13. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES TO FURNISH ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION PRIMARILY TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN OF FEDERAL EMPLOYEES, USUALLY RESIDING ON RESERVATIONS AND OTHER FEDERAL PROPERTIES OR IN OCCUPIED AREAS

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment–Army (Engineers and Quartermaster) | Education of dependents | NA | 669 | 2,673 | 2,244 |
| National Military Establishment–Army (Civil Affairs–Occupied Areas) | Education of dependents | – | 0 | 1,125 | 2,874 * |
| National Military Establishment–Army (Engineers) | Flood Control Act dependents | – | NA | 445 | NA |
| National Military Establishment–Army (Engineers) | Rivers and Harbors Act dependents | – | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment–Navy (Bureau of Aeronautics) | Education of dependents | NA | 16 | 36 | 55 |
| National Military Establishment–Navy (Bureau of Ordnance) | Education of dependents | 53 | 180 | 323 | 350 |
| National Military Establishment–Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | Education of dependents | 4 | 16 | 75 | 249 |
| National Military Establishment–Navy (U.S. Marine Corps) | Education of dependents | 31 | 217 | 254 | 254 |
| Interior (Bureau of Reclamation) | Education of dependents | 78 | 124 | 39 | 740 |
| Panama Canal (Schools Division) | Operation of schools | 483 | 1,073 | 1,136 | 1,327 |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Education of dependents at dam and reservoir construction projects | NA | 97 † | NA | NA |
| Atomic Energy Commission | Operation of schools for dependents | – | 3,177 | 3,685 | 4,399 |
| Atomic Energy Commission | Construction of schools for dependents | – | 1,484 | 5,395 | 11,107 |
| Total | | 649+ | 7,053+ | 15,186+ | 23,599+ |

* Reduction may be necessary.

† Includes $12,963 for agricultural re-adjustment education.

In 1948 it is estimated that there were 8,534 dependent children of school age in areas abroad. In 1949 it was estimated that this number would be 12,439. In 1947 the Army estimated that, for the education of dependent children in occupied areas, approximately $3,000,000 in non-appropriated funds were used. Outside of Continental United States, in Alaska, Hawaii, the Philippines, and eleven posts in the Caribbean area during 1948 the Army provided for the education of 1,522 children.

Closely allied with this problem of children of federal employees in occupied areas is that of children of federal employees in foreign countries, primarily at Department of State installations, for which no formal federal provision is made.

In brief summary, the education of many children on reservations, federally owned properties, and special federal jurisdictions either at home or abroad, is a federal responsibility if we accept the tenet that all of our children are to be given an opportunity for elementary and secondary education at public expense. The large diversity of situations—geographical, jurisdictional, and administrative—complicates the problem. Several governmental agencies have quite different policies and there is seldom consistency in policy within an agency. There is some cause for having called these children "educational orphans."[19] The recent increased tendency of Congress to enact piecemeal legislation in reference to individual situations or agencies without regard to any well-established over-all policy is not satisfactory.

There is very apparent need of a federal policy to cover all situations treated in this section. It is recommended that comprehensive federal legislation be initiated which will recognize this responsibility. It is believed that the federal educational agency should be the major administering and co-ordinating force in the government for this activity. In no case should it be expected to operate schools. Federal funds should be channeled through the federal educational agency to contracting agencies to care for

[19] *School Life*, Official Journal of the U.S. Office of Education, Vol. 29, No. 10, July 1947, "Educational Orphans" by Fred F. Beach, Specialist for State School Administration, p. 25.

these dependent children. Preference should be given to the regularly established schools in the states and territories where possible. In some cases the federal agency responsible for operations in a given jurisdiction might well be the contracting agency. For instance, the Navy may best be able to operate the program for education of Navy dependents on Guam. The important thing is that these children have an equal opportunity as compared with children on the Atomic Energy Commission projects or as compared with dependent children in Germany or Japan. The piecemeal legislation of the past should give way to a comprehensive over-all plan by which the federal government will step in when states and territories are unwilling or unable so that many of these children cannot further be known as "educational orphans." The federal government should be first rather than last in recognizing its responsibility to children in its jurisdictions.

It is believed that such residue of the Lanham Act situations which may continue can also be brought under a general framework somewhat similar to that suggested above.

An interdepartmental council with representatives from each department or independent agency of the government which has problems involving the education of dependent children should be established with leadership from the federal educational agency for the purpose of carrying out the comprehensive policy of the government.

## V. Education of Indians and Other Native Peoples

The table on page 133 indicates readily identifiable federal activities in furnishing elementary and secondary education to Indians and other native peoples.

It is of interest to note that the Bureau of Indian Affairs in recent years has utilized the regular public schools for the education of Indians to an increasing extent. In 1947 the Bureau had contracts with six states which provided for the education of 8,797 pupils. In addition, contracts with over 1,100 school districts

TABLE 14. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES TO FURNISH ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION TO INDIANS AND OTHER NATIVE PEOPLES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Interior (Bureau of Indian Affairs) | Operation of schools for Indians | 9,006 | 11,291 * | 11,140 † | 12,054 † |
| Interior (Bureau of Indian Affairs) | Maintenance and construction of schools for Indians | 149 | 615 | 1,083 | 1,664 |
| Interior (Fish and Wildlife Service) | Pribilof Islands schools | 8 | 21 | 15 | 15 |
| Interior (Bureau of Indian Affairs) | Operation of schools for natives of Alaska | 729 | 1,622 | 1,433 | 1,475 |
| Total ..... | | 9,892 | 13,549 | 13,671 | 15,208 |

* $2,000 of this for higher education.
† $9,000 each year for higher education.

provided for the schooling of 12,759 pupils. Although the discussion of this policy and of other matters involving the education of Indian children is left to the Commission task force report on the Indian Service, it may be stated here that it is believed that this policy of utilizing the existing public school system of the country for the education of Indians should be encouraged.

Although it seems incongruous that the Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of the Interior should operate schools for the children of natives on the Pribilof Islands, this plan should continue. Certainly it would be highly undesirable for the federal educational agency to direct such a program with the subsequent need for duplication of supervisory personnel in the Islands.

The education of natives on Guam by the Navy is included in Table 32 (Chapter 7) as this activity includes higher as well as elementary and secondary education. The Navy is also responsible for education of natives on certain occupied islands and in American Samoa. Similarly, the Department of the Interior,

through its office for Government in the Territories, has certain general responsibilities for the education in Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and Hawaii. Education of natives in Alaska is carried on by the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the Department of the Interior and is included in the activities of the above table. Insofar as the federal government assists in the general government of Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands, it also assists in education of the natives on these islands. In actual operations, the federal government deals with education in Hawaii practically in the same manner as it deals with states.

In Puerto Rico, the Commissioner of Education is appointed by the President of the United States with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Commissioner has considerably more centralization of authority in his office, both in respect to policy and administration, than normally is given to a school executive in the states. This authority is sometimes checked by the insular legislature through its power to appropriate funds to the schools. The Commissioner appoints district superintendents of schools, while the mayors of municipalities appoint school directors responsible for the business administration of schools within each municipality, a divided type of authority for which little commendation can be found. Elementary and secondary schools are operated under the general direction of the Commissioner and he is also ex-officio chairman of the board of trustees for the University of Puerto Rico. Most of the federal aid given to education in the states is extended to Puerto Rico. The Virgin Islands are divided into two "municipalities" each of which has a superintendent of schools appointed by the U.S. Secretary of the Interior.

It will have been noted from the foregoing that several agencies of the government conduct schools for indigenous peoples or are basically responsible for such education. Under the present set-up there is little possibility that there can be a common policy for such education. Although it is realized that there should be much variation in educational programs for such peoples in terms of their local problems, local cultures, and other circumstances, it is assumed that one of the purposes of this education should be

aimed at bringing them into accord with certain of the broader fundamentals of American tradition and civic responsibility. It would seem that there should be some common policy to these programs even though administration, particularly for the smaller groups, might be decentralized to the federal agency concerned with more general operations in the areas involved.

It would be appropriate to establish an interdepartmental council, headed in the federal educational agency, for this purpose. This agency should also be responsible for conducting periodic surveys and for the conduct of research in connection with these programs and activities. A satisfactory solution of all the educational problems of these peoples, with the great variation in circumstances which exist, cannot be immediately expected. It is believed essential, however, that there be co-ordination immediately and that information be made available periodically in order that we may develop even more effective programs for meeting our obligations to these peoples.

## VI. Federal Research and Leadership

The U.S. Office of Education is the only federal agency which is concerned with the furnishing of general leadership and research service to the regular elementary and secondary schools in the states. The table on page 136 isolates from the breakdown of administrative funds of the Office of Education those activities which clearly concern elementary and secondary education.

In addition to the activities in Table 15, the Office of Education has several other activities for assistance to all levels of education which do of course serve elementary and secondary education. These will be treated in a later section. Also the activities involved with vocational education in secondary schools already treated in Section I of this chapter should be noted.

Of the many and varied activities of the federal government which concern only elementary and secondary schools, those listed in Table 15 (page 136) may be considered as practically the only ones which have concern for the general welfare, general progress,

TABLE 15. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES TO FURNISH GENERAL LEADERSHIP AND RESEARCH SERVICE TO ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS THROUGH THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —elementary education | NA | 87 | 147 | 162 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —secondary education | NA | 101 | 175 | 201 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —school administration | NA | 75 | 106 | 121 |
| Total ..... | | NA | 263 | 428 | 484 |

and general promotion of these schools generally throughout the country. They constitute a mere pittance in comparison with the total program and cannot be expected to balance the tremendous sum of federal activities which are involved with special phases of education, special groups of individuals, or special assistance to geographical areas. The moneys expended for the programs listed in the above table are all expended on the federal level for personal services, publications, travel, and so forth. Only 21 per cent of the staff of the Office of Education is devoted to these three activities. If the federal government is to avoid being accused of favoritism to special interests and of encouraging an imbalance in the elementary and secondary schools of the country, it is essential that it do more than is evidenced by the above table to render general service for a balanced program of education and a balanced service in respect to educational problems to the schools generally throughout the country.

## VII. MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES

Two federal programs concerning elementary and secondary education are not readily identified with the classifications con-

sidered previously in this chapter. They are included in the following table.

TABLE 16. MISCELLANEOUS FEDERAL ACTIVITIES WHICH CONCERN SPECIAL TYPES OR ASPECTS OF ELEMENTARY AND/OR SECONDARY EDUCATION

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| State (Libraries and Institutes) | American schools in Latin America | NA | 209 | 171 | 171 |
| Labor (Apprentice Training Service) | Apprenticeship training | 85 | 2,274 | 2,411 | 2,444 |
| Total ..... | | 85+ | 2,483 | 2,582 | 2,615 |

The worthiness of federal contributions and assistance to American-sponsored schools in Latin America is not a concern of this report. Rather this is a matter for consideration in the report on the Department of State. However, it should be pointed out that the fourteen American-sponsored schools in Latin America which received over $170,000 in general support for elementary and/or secondary education in 1947 were given much more favorable fiscal treatment than the federal government has ever been willing to bestow generally for elementary or secondary schools in the United States. It should also be noted that a private educational organization in this country, rather than the U.S. Office of Education, is responsible for the administration of this program.

The apprenticeship training program of the Department of Labor is arbitrarily placed in this classification. Its ultimate goal is the development of trade skills, thus being similar in goal to the vocational education program in the secondary schools, although its method is so different that it does not belong in the classification of Table 9.

This program is primarily to promote voluntary agreements between labor and management and agreements for special industry programs which will regulate the conditions under which apprenticeship training may be carried on. These agreements

are designed to protect the interests of the apprentice, of labor, and of management. This program promotes over-all agreements on the national level as well as more specific agreements within states. Approximately half of the states have apprenticeship councils made up of representatives of labor and management. The federal employees work with these councils as well as directly on the state and local level in the promotion of the apprenticeship agreements. There is no evidence of undue overlapping between the labor apprenticeship program and the program of vocational education, although misunderstandings have occurred when federal representatives have attempted to enforce their standards rather than those developed by agreement between local representatives of management, labor, and vocational education.

There are a number of places where these two programs could be of greater mutual assistance than is often evident. For instance, in planning the apprenticeship agreement, the facilities of local trade schools for the related training are not always taken into account. Each apprentice is supposed to have 144 hours per year of institutional training, usually in vocational high schools. A thorough understanding should exist between the local apprenticeship councils and the trade vocational teachers concerning this related instruction. The problem of related instruction in those communities not having adequate facilities in vocational education should be given more consideration. High school teachers in vocational trade and industrial education could obtain much helpful information relative to their fields of teaching from the local apprenticeship councils. The vocational guidance programs of high schools could be enhanced by a similar coordination. It is believed that, in those localities where apprenticeship credit is not given for vocational education taken previous to apprenticeship, such should be considered, under proper control of the local apprenticeship council. In other words, these programs should be mutually supporting rather than independently operated as is all too prevalent today. The apprenticeship councils on state and local level should have representation from

the field of trade and industrial vocational education. The federal government should insure that these two federal programs are co-ordinated at the state level. No specific formula for this is suggested as it is believed the local conditions in each state will warrant considerable variation.

It is thus recommended that a program for co-ordination be prepared by states by mutual agreement between state apprenticeship councils, where such exist, and state representatives of the trade and industrial vocational education program. These plans should then be approved at the federal level by a similar joint group of federal representatives. The federal group should have a very minimum of standards consistent with good federal policy, giving much latitude to states in experimenting with such co-ordination. In states which do not have apprenticeship councils, the federal co-ordinating group should encourage activities which will develop mutual assistance between these two programs.

## VIII. Summary

Many agencies of the federal government are involved with problems concerning elementary and secondary education. A number of these, including the promotion of special areas of the curriculum, the support of school lunch programs, general assistance in special geographical areas, federal research and leadership through the U.S. Office of Education, and the promotion of the apprentice training program involve the regularly constituted elementary and/or secondary schools in the states. The government also finds itself increasingly in the field of operating schools or making educational arrangements for children for whom it has a distinct responsibility. Piecemeal legislation and the promotion of activities sponsored by special interests without regard to total needs or any clear-cut comprehensive federal policy have resulted in dispersal of unco-ordinated educational responsibility to a variety of federal agencies.

A few suggestions have been made for improving the federal

policy and organization as it relates to the school lunch program, the education of dependent children and children of indigenous peoples, and the apprentice training program. Major recommendations are retained for later chapters as a number of other matters must be considered before appropriate conclusions can be reached.

# *Chapter 6.* FEDERAL ACTIVITIES CLEARLY CONCERNING HIGHER EDUCATION

One of the most startling educational phenomena of this decade is the tremendous growth of federal activity in utilizing the higher educational institutions of the land, both public and private, in the national interest and in the interests of special groups of individuals and special causes. It was only natural during the war period that the rich technical and professional resources of these institutions should be made available in the national interest. These resources having been "discovered" during the emergency period are being further utilized.

This chapter is devoted to those federal activities which clearly are in the field of higher education. The two following chapters dealing with activities which cannot be clearly designated as to level of education (including education of veterans) and with a number of programs which may or may not concern the regular educational institutions in the land should be consulted if the total of federal activities in higher education is to be understood.

For a brief description of each of the activities dealt with in this chapter, the reader should consult Chapter 2. Also the cautions concerning interpretation and comparability of fiscal figures indicated at the first of Chapter 2 should be reviewed in connection with the following programs.

Federal educational activities which directly affect or operate through the regularly constituted colleges and universities are indicated in the following six sections. After these is a section dealing with federally operated higher education.

Most of the activities treated in this chapter are in the areas of the specialized interests of the departments and agencies of the

government which administer them. Such evaluation of these activities as they concern the subject fields of the departments and agencies involved will be made in the appropriate Commission reports. This report on education is concerned primarily with the effect of these programs as they have an impact on the program of higher education in the country at large. The specific discussion of the total effect of these educational activities on the regularly constituted higher educational institutions in the country is reserved for Chapters 11 and 13. Thus the discussion below is limited to the bare details of description and classification and such comments as will not be appropriate to the later chapters.

## I. Research

Nine departments or independent agencies of the government through many more of their sub-agencies are making grants or entering into contracts for research through colleges and universities. These activities are summarized in the following table.

It will be noted that between 1947 and 1949 there was almost a doubling of federal research funds through the colleges and universities of the country. Of the total of over $160,000,000 of federal funds in 1949 for this type of activity, the major amount is expended on the college or university campuses and thus has to a considerable extent a definite effect on the programs of these institutions. Practically all of this research is in technical or scientific areas.

Aside from the effect on the regular higher institutions of the land, we must consider the more purely federal interest in these projects. The question may well be asked, "Should the federal government develop its own research facilities or should it utilize the resources in the colleges and universities for its research activities?" It is believed that much needless duplication on the part of the federal government of facilities and staff already available in colleges and universities is avoided by this arrangement. The dependence of the nation on these universities and colleges

TABLE 17. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES CONCERNED WITH SPECIAL TYPES OF RESEARCH DONE THROUGH REGULARLY CONSTITUTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment—Army .... | Contract research | NA | 11,198 | 15,400 | 16,000(E) |
| National Military Establishment—Navy .... | Research and development | NA | 34,957 | 25,643(E) | 28,311(E) |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force . | Research and development | NA | 3,700 | 4,960(E) | 8,760(E) |
| Commerce (CAA) ..... | Research in psychology | 87 | 34 | 50 | 55 |
| Commerce (Weather Bureau) ..... | Contract research in meteorology | 24 | 59 | 85 | 85 |
| Agriculture (Office of Experiment Stations) | Agricultural experiment stations | 7,004 | 7,388 | 7,372 | 7,558 |
| Agriculture (Agricultural Research Administration) ..... | 15 programs of research, etc. | 3,719 | 4,944 | 5,054 | 5,168 |
| Agriculture (Soil Conservation Service) ... | Research | 1,797 | 1,542 | 1,180 | 1,680 |
| Agriculture ..... | Research and Marketing Act | — | — | 4,291 | 4,211 |
| Interior (Bonneville Power Administration) . | Contract research | NA | 22 | 0 | 0 |
| Interior (Fish and Wildlife Service) ..... | Co-operative research | 60 | 76 | 70 | 97 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) ..... | Research grants | 92 ° | 2,776 ° | 5,753 | 6,902 |
| National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics ..... | Research | NA | 250 | 507(E) | 500(E) |
| Atomic Energy Commission ..... | Contract research—on campus | — | 9,809 | 7,530 | 10,421 |
| Atomic Energy Commission ..... | Research construction—on campus | — | 1,042 | 4,592 | 6,322 |
| Atomic Energy Commission ..... | Contract research—off campus | — | 9,136 | 34,993 | 28,342 |
| Atomic Energy Commission ..... | Research construction—off campus | — | 2,040 | 28,304 | 36,322 |
| Total ..... | | 12,783+ | 88,973 | 145,784(E) | 160,734(E) |

° Including administration of both grants and fellowships.

for the technicians and scientists needed in the national welfare and the national economy is recognized, and this may well be a major justification for federal participation in this type of activity.

Overtly there is no effort to influence the course of higher education by these programs, as institutions enter into agreements with the federal government to conduct this research with their own free will.

In some cases, such as the Atomic Energy off-campus research programs, the universities are probably acting more in the capacity of private contracting research organizations than they are as educational institutions. The co-operative nature of those situations in which several universities in a region co-operate in joint development of the research programs is significant.

In this brief review it is apparent that it would be only by chance if there were not considerable overlapping in these researches. Orderly overlapping as a check on research results may be desirable. It would seem essential, however, that there be more co-ordination between the federal agencies carrying on research activities with colleges and universities. Otherwise there can be no assurance of common policy, and against needless and expensive overlapping and duplication of research projects. While no solution is suggested, as on the federal level this basically is not a problem of education, it is believed that the problem is sufficiently critical to deserve attention and action.

## II. Higher Education of Special Groups of Individuals and Individuals in Special Fields of Study

As with research through colleges and universities, the federal government is increasing its use of higher institutions throughout the land in providing education for special groups of individuals or individuals in special fields of study. Those programs which can be clearly identified in this regard, except for those that are obviously pre- or in-service government training (see Table 21), are indicated in the table on page 146.

If we eliminate the temporary programs for veterans educa-

tional facilities and nursing education, which reduced approximately $72,000,000 between 1947 and 1949, the 1949 total would be some $22,000,000 higher than 1947.

A review of Table 18 (page 146) and of the descriptions of these activities appearing in Chapter 2 will reveal a variety of programs involved with instruction of various groups, fellowships in specialized fields, educational facilities for specific groups of individuals, and programs of a similar nature.

The subject of extension service with federal support for special groups in the population is worthy of special mention. For many years the farm people of the country through the agricultural extension service operated by land grant colleges with considerable federal support (nearly $31,500,000 in 1949) have been in a favored position in this respect. We agree that the general national economy is closely linked with the welfare of the farm group and its ability to produce effectively from the soil. It will be noted, however, that the Office of Small Business of the Department of Commerce has encouraged a relatively small extension service for small business men in three states, although budgetary consideration for the federal office involved was eliminated in 1949. Labor is making strenuous efforts to obtain federal support for a labor extension service program. While we recognize certain validity in Congressional refusal to support a labor extension program on the basis that it might be utilized to promote only a single point of view as represented by certain labor groups, we find it difficult to reconcile a situation in which extension service, well supported by the government, is given to only one group in the population. Essentially the agricultural extension service is a program in the field of adult education. It would be unfortunate if the federal government were to build unintegrated programs of several separate extension services, each for a special group in the population. Such a situation, aside from its relative unfairness to certain sections of the population which might be omitted from consideration, would involve the danger of partisanship, multiple administration, possibilities of overlapping, and kindred ills.

TABLE 18. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES FOR EDUCATION OF SPECIAL GROUPS OF INDIVIDUALS OR INDIVIDUALS IN SPECIAL FIELDS OF STUDY, OTHER THAN PRE- OR IN-SERVICE GOVERNMENT TRAINING, THROUGH THE REGULARLY CONSTITUTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Commerce (Office of Small Business) | Extension service | NA | 25 | 25 | 0 |
| Agriculture (Extension Service) | Co-operative extension program | 19,143 | 28,208 | 28,364 | 31,498 |
| Agriculture (Production and Marketing Administration) | Demonstrations | 94 | 207 | 246 | 256 |
| Agriculture (Bureau of Agricultural Economics) | Collection and dissemination of agricultural information | 894 | 351 | 364 | 364 |
| Agriculture (Extension Service) | Supply and distribution of farm labor through land grant colleges | — | — | 2,231 | — |
| Agriculture (Rural Electrification Administration) | Assistance to borrowers in training employees in use of electrical power | — | — | 20 | 20 |
| Interior (Fish and Wildlife Service) | Fellowships | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Federal Works Agency (Bureau of Community Facilities) | Veterans educational facilities | — | 62,729 | 19,400 | 2,000 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Veterans educational facilities (assistance to Federal Works Agency) | — | 160 | 192 | 53 |
| Federal Security Agency | Howard University—federal assistance for operations | 782 | 1,646 | 2,153 | 2,268 |
| Federal Security Agency | Howard University—plans and building construction | 194 | 15 | 6,090 | 1,373 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Federal Security Agency | Freedmen's Hospital—training medical and hospital personnel | NA | 87 | 158 | 178 |
| Federal Security Agency | Saint Elizabeth's Hospital—training medical and hospital personnel | NA | 140 | 168 | 194 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Grants to states for public health training | 981 | 783 | 1,256 | 1,546 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Nursing education | — | 11,926 | 4,000 | 350 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Fellowships and/or teaching grants (including construction in 1948 and 1949) | 70 | 147 | 2,289 | 10,579 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Grants for training in mental hygiene | — | — | 1,174 | 2,500 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Demonstrations in professional education—mental health | — | — | 90 | 108 |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Agricultural resource development | NA | 875 ° | NA | NA |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Forest resource development | NA | 17 ° | NA | NA |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Mineral resource development | NA | 17 ° | NA | NA |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Stream sanitation and public health | NA | 23 ° | NA | NA |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Special studies and activities | NA | 24 ° | NA | NA |
| Housing and Home Finance Agency | Temporary housing for veterans | — | NA | NA | NA |
| Atomic Energy Commission | Fellowship program | — | — | 2,600 | 3,400 |
| Total | | 22,163+ | 107,385+ | 70,820+ | 56,687+ |

° Includes research.

The time may arrive when it will be advisable to consider a federal program of comprehensive adult education in co-operation with the states and wherein the major determination of purpose is retained by the states. If the federal government is to expand further into this field, such a plan is considered essential in order to avoid the many obvious pitfalls and injustices which may otherwise result. Piecemeal legislation will be necessary for any contemplated expansion to new areas, however, until greater strength is developed in the federal educational agency and in over-all state educational agencies. One of the inherent dangers in such an approach is the tendency to encourage multiple administrative agencies in the states, which when once entrenched make subsequent comprehensive development and co-ordination practically impossible at the operating level.

Even more basic to our argument is the fact that education, properly protected from partisanship, may be used as a unifying force in the development of our citizenry. When we give one brand of education to laborers, another to farmers, and possibly still another type to small business men, we tend to produce separatist thinking resulting in widening of the cleavages between groups. While recognizing that our national interest is closely involved with the skill and understanding by which these various groups of individuals do their work, even more important is the fact that all have the duties and obligations of a citizenship we hold in common. A higher degree of literacy and basic understanding of ourselves as related to the society and environment about us is much needed. We make little contribution to our common zeal for democracy by undue emphasis on the points of view which tend to separate groups in our national life. Extension programs for specific groups in the population may have a place, but we also need programs which will enable our citizenry to realize that there are important problems, aspirations, and understandings which concern all of our people. This problem goes to the roots of effective democratic life.

It is not intended that this argument be used to entrench extension work in agriculture as the only one to be sponsored by

the federal government, nor to imply that we deny the right of special extension education to permit laborers or small business men or mothers or any other group in the country to perform their particular services more effectively. We have merely pointed out some of the dangers of separate extension programs for special groups of individuals and made a plea for a more comprehensive and fundamental federal policy in this respect. If we first arrive at a policy which places emphasis on those things which are of general value in a comprehensive adult education program, then we are in a better position to develop the specialties. We merely ask for balance in such activities.

A review of the programs listed in Table 18 will indicate that not more than two or three are concerned with general support or encouragement of broad curriculum. The large majority are geared either through fellowships or encouragement of special types of education to technical or scientific areas. As fine as these may be by themselves or collectively, we still must raise the question as to whether the government is not, by rather subtle means, warping the purposes of higher education in a manner which may place its curricular and student emphasis in a state of imbalance.

## III. Special Types of State Higher Institutions

The federal government gives general support to two separate types of state higher educational institutions as indicated in the table on page 150.

A review of the educational activities of the U.S. Maritime Commission as indicated in Chapter 2 will reveal that it operates its own merchant marine academies and gives support as well to maritime academies in a few states. This would appear to be a type of duplication which may not be warranted. The training of personnel for the United States merchant fleet, it would seem, is now much more a federal concern than a state concern. It is believed probable that the state maritime academies have outlived their usefulness and should either be taken over by the

TABLE 19. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN GENERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION IN A SPECIAL TYPE OF STATE HIGHER INSTITUTION

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | State maritime academies | NA | 1,143 | 1,120 | 1,488(E) |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General support to land grant colleges | 5,030 | 5,030 | 5,030 | 5,030 |
| Total ..... | | 5,030+ | 6,173 | 6,150 | 6,518(E) |

federal government or the activities of the state maritime academies should be consolidated into the more general training programs of the U.S. Maritime Commission. The state contribution to these academies is relatively small as compared with the federal contribution. Thus there is little for the government to lose financially and there may be much to gain in unification.

The general support for resident instruction in the land grant colleges administered by the Office of Education is sometimes referred to as the most effective grant-in-aid made by the federal government. This, coupled with the generous endowment of these colleges by grants of federal lands, has developed 69 colleges and universities in the states and territories many of which are among our strongest institutions. The expenditures by states for these institutions are many, many times greater than the amount of federal support. The grants, having been quite general in nature, involve practically no administration on the federal level. With minor exceptions the federal grants have been well administered by the states. We have here an illustration that a rather general cause in the field of education can be supported by the federal government without undue federal controls. A question may be raised as to whether this financial grant has outlived its usefulness. As an incentive this support is no longer needed. The majority of these institutions could carry on with-

out it. In some of the more poverty-stricken states and territories, however, the income from this source is essential to the proper operations of the institutions. Also to withdraw such funds at this time would in effect be a penalty for good administration. Out of fairness to all concerned, these grants should be continued.

## IV. General Service and Research

The following table presents the only two activities of the federal government solely devoted to general service and research in the interests of all of the regularly constituted colleges and universities of the country, and it will be noted that only one of these is continuing.

Table 20. Federal Activities for General Service and Research for the Regularly Constituted Colleges and Universities of the Country Through the United States Office of Education *

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration—higher education | NA | 75 | 149 | 167 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Assistance to President's Commission on Higher Education | — | 12 | — | — |
| Total ..... | | NA | 87 | 149 | 167 |

* See Table 30 (Chapter 7) for other U.S. Office of Education activities which serve both elementary-secondary and higher education.

While the federal government expends many hundreds of millions of dollars each year through higher educational institutions for special types of research, education of special groups of individuals, fellowships in special phases of the curriculum, for the pre- or in-service training of government personnel, and for exchange of students and professors in the international interest, its concern for the general and well-rounded development of the higher institutions of the land in general is limited in 1949 to the

$167,000 which was made available for the support of the Division of Higher Education in the U.S. Office of Education. There are, of course, other activities of the federal government which, as a by-product, contribute to the general well-being and effectiveness of the colleges and universities of the country. Also there are other services of the U.S. Office of Education which, in affecting all levels of education, will of course be of some general service to the higher educational institutions. The fact remains, however, that the support of the Division of Higher Education in the Office of Education is the only clear-cut case of federal interest in the general cause of higher education. That the support of this division of the Office has more than doubled in the last two years is encouraging. That the amount is so small in relationship to the vast amount expended through these institutions for special causes and groups may well raise the question as to whether it can be effective as a balancing force to the higher institutions of the land. The federal government having supported so many specialized activities in higher institutions owes them more regard for their general interest.

## V. Education and Training for Government Service

The following table will indicate those identifiable and clear-cut activities of the federal government whereby the regularly constituted colleges and universities of the nation are used for pre- or in-service education and training for federal governmental service.

In addition to the activities of Table 21, there is little doubt that many of the research activities and activities for the education of special groups or of individuals in special fields of study listed earlier in this chapter are in the anticipation that individuals involved in these researches or special fields of study will subsequently enter the federal service. Certainly one of the purposes of these previously mentioned activities is to develop a reservoir of adequately trained technicians and scientists in the national interest.

TABLE 21. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES FOR PRE- OR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE THROUGH THE REGULARLY CONSTITUTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| State (Foreign Service Institute) | University in-service | 0 | 17 | 71 | 71 |
| National Military Establishment—Army (Organization and Training Division) | Training military personnel | NA | 659 | 905 | 915 |
| National Military Establishment—Army (Adjutant General's Office) | ROTC | 4,568 | 15,073 | 22,025 | 21,175 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Naval Research) | In-service through universities | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Naval Research) | In-service jet propulsion | — | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Naval Research) | High-digital computing | — | 25 | 0 | — |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Medicine and Surgery) | In-service postgraduate | 50 | 148 | 217 | 260 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | NROTC, NACP, etc. | NA | 8,054 | 8,341 | 7,638 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (U.S. Marine Corps) | In-service officers' postgraduate schooling | NA | 32 | 32 | 33 |
| Commerce (Weather Bureau) | In-service advanced meteorology | 4 | 3 | 6 | 6 |
| Veterans Administration (Department of Medicine and Surgery) | Formal classes, seminars, research projects for residency training | NA | 1,310 | 3,000 | 3,613 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Evaluation of audio-visual aids for Bureau of Naval Personnel | — | — | 30 * | 0 * |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | In-service training in mental health | — | — | 11 | 28 |
| Housing and Home Finance Agency | In-service training of employees | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | | 4,622+ | 25,330 | 34,638 | 33,739 |

* Funds remain available until June 30, 1950.

As with a number of other classifications of federal programs, it will be noted that there has been a very marked increase in the use of the colleges and universities of the land for pre- or in-service education and training between the years 1940 and 1949. The officer training programs of the Army, Navy, and Air Force constitute the bulk of these funds.

It is significant that the Navy has recently initiated a program whereby a rather comprehensive examination is given in high schools in an effort to draw male youth in the higher brackets of intelligence and educational attainment into its officer training program in the universities and colleges. While this has justification from the narrow viewpoint of the Navy, it is questionable whether in terms of long-range social policy in this country such a program can be justified. Should the Navy be permitted to have an inside track as compared with other governmental agencies in an effort to enlist the brains of the country? And, even more important, should any single cause or calling whether governmental or non-governmental attempt to skim the intellectual cream of the land? Of course it can be said that these bright and promising young men are free moral agents. However, this may not be as true as it seems. First, the publicity caused by this search can exert a type of undue persuasion. Second, the offer of prestige, scholarships, and employment after completion of a college career constitute enticements which many individuals, particularly those in lower income brackets, will find it extremely hard to resist. The very giving of the tests and the announcements which go with them give this program a calculated advantageous lead over other callings in American life. There is definitely a competition for the brains of America to an extent which has never previously existed. It is important for the well-rounded growth of America that no one individual group or calling be given too great an advantage in this competition. The federal government must not permit itself to become a party in such a situation.

## VI. The International Interest

The following table indicates a considerable use of the colleges and universities of the country in the exchange of persons between countries to improve international understanding.

Table 22. Federal Activities in the International Interest Through Regularly Constituted Colleges and Universities

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Oligated (in thousands of dollars) 1940 | 1947 | Available 1948 | 1949 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | Co-operation with American Republics—students | — | 449 | * | * |
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | CAR—professors | — | 149 | 195 † | 196 † |
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | Fulbright program | — | — | 19 | 231 |
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | CAR | — | 159 | 113 | 132(E) |
| Agriculture (Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations) | CAR | — | 73 | 63 | 66 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | CAR | — | 120 | 100 | NA |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Philippine rehabilitation | — | 12 | 24 | 13 ‡ |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service; Vital Statistics) | CAR | — | 350 | 348 | 235 |
| Institute of Interamerican Affairs | Training of Latin-American technicians in the United States | | | | |
| Total ..... | | — | 1,312 | 862 | 873(E)+ |

* Transferred to Office of Education. Listed in Table 31 (Chapter 7).
† Also includes interchange of specialists and leaders.
‡ Requested.

Although for many years the colleges and universities of the country have, to a considerable extent, carried on activities in this field through private funds, we now see that the federal government is entering this field. Although the sums of money are relatively small, it is significant that here again the federal government finds the higher institutions of the country a worthy avenue for furthering a national and international interest.

## VII. Federally Operated Higher Educational Institutions

The federal government not only has many activities operated through the regular higher educational institutions of the country, but it operates several higher educational institutions of its own. These are listed in the following table.

Table 23. Federally Operated Higher Educational Institutions

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment—Army | U.S. Military Academy | 3,349 | 7,144 | 7,657 | 7,575 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | U.S. Naval Academy | 2,080 | 4,573 | 4,614 | 5,020 |
| Commerce (National Bureau of Standards) | National Bureau of Standards Graduate School | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Treasury (U.S. Coast Guard) | U.S. Coast Guard Academy | 606 | 1,230 | 1,559 | 1,666 |
| Agriculture | U.S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | Merchant marine academies | NA | 4,835 | 3,117 | 3,230 |
| Total ..... | | 6,035+ | 17,782 | 16,947 | 17,491 |

In addition to the above, it should be noted that the Navy also operates a postgraduate school which is listed in Table 33 (Chapter 8) as it is concerned with both category "A" and category "B"

activities. So in effect the Bureau of Standards, the Department of Agriculture, and the Navy are all operating graduate schools. The question may be asked, "Will this trend continue and will all departments of the government subsequently desire graduate schools?" Before this question can be answered, we must inquire into the nature of these graduate schools.

It is assumed that the graduate school of the Navy is concerned only with advanced education of Navy personnel and thus can be labeled as justified in-service training. It should also be noted that it sends many of its students to the regular colleges and universities of the country.

The Graduate School of the National Bureau of Standards enrolls the majority of its five-hundred-odd students from the Bureau staff and in technical fields of advanced study closely related to the activities of the Bureau. Thus it is primarily an in-service graduate study program even though others with proper training may enroll in the courses. Graduate credit has been accepted by a number of universities throughout the country towards the requirements of higher, including doctorate, degrees. Close liaison is maintained with the Department of Agriculture Graduate School and other educational institutions to prevent duplication of effort. Thus this activity seems to be justified.

The Graduate School of the Department of Agriculture is somewhat different in that only fourteen per cent of its students are U.S. Department of Agriculture employees, while 74 per cent are employees of other federal departments. For instance, under the university study program for Navy scientific and engineering personnel in the Washington area in 1947, twenty-one courses with 591 Navy employees enrolled were sponsored by the Department of Agriculture Graduate School.

In addition to courses devoted to agriculture, a review of its annual bulletin discloses courses paralleling what might appear in almost any university of the land. A few such course titles catch the eye: Great Books; Safety Engineering; Birds in the Washington Area; Vocabulary Building; Creative Writing ("Basic Problems of Structure and Style in the Fields of Fiction, Verse and

Drama"); Trends in Contemporary Literature; Modern Russia; Survey of College Mathematics; Tests and Measurements; Office Management; General College Chemistry; Advanced Physical Metallurgy; Introduction to Dynamic Meteorology; Introduction to Modern Physics; Introduction to Public Administration; Public Relations in Government Administration; Managing Personal Finances; Veterans' Legislation and Administration; Legal Aspects of Investigation—Criminal Evidence and Procedure; Property Management; Business Law; Federal Tax Accounting; Public Finance and Taxation; Economic Theory of International Trade; Research Methods in Social Sciences; Risk and Insurance; Seminar in Rural Social Policies; City Planning and Urban Development; Introduction to Labor Problems; The Settlement of Labor Disputes; Seminar on the Application of Psycho-Social and Psychoanalytic Methods to Problems of International Relations; Current Problems of World Politics; World Social Structure; The Policies and Interrelations of the Great Powers—USA, British Commonwealth and USSR; Modern Japan; Regulation of Communications; Air Traffic Management; Child and Adolescent Psychology; The Conditions of Personality Growth; Personality Disorders; Introduction to Sociometry and Psychodrama; General Sociology; The Cultural Regions of the United States.

We assume all of the above courses to be highly worth while. However, if we are to have a graduate school operated by the federal government three-quarters of whose students are employees of the government outside the Department of Agriculture should this institution be operated by Agriculture? The fact that tuitions pay the instructional costs does not obviate the fact that this is a federal educational institution operated by a department of the government. Is this the beginning of a national university? Over the years when the matter has been discussed Congress has always thought it would be contrary to good public policy to have a national university. Are there regularly organized universities in the Washington area which can care for the in-service and general cultural needs of the clientele *now* served by the Graduate School of the Department of Agriculture?

This report does not attempt an answer to these questions. Inso-
far as this Graduate School serves the in-service training needs of
personnel of the Department of Agriculture it is to be highly com-
mended. The fact that much of its work is beyond that which is
specifically of the Department of Agriculture raises doubts re-
garding its function and place in the federal structure.

It is suggested that consideration be given to a plan whereby the needs for in-service training of a graduate nature in fields related to the activities of the various departments of the government be centralized in the Civil Service Commission with coordination and assistance from the Division of Higher Education of the Office of Education. General cultural education and areas of technical and scientific study which may have been already well developed by regular higher institutions in the Washington area may well remain with those institutions.

An evaluation of the academies of the Army and Navy, Coast Guard, and Maritime Commission is not justified in this section of the report. It may be pointed out, however, that the general tendency throughout higher education in this country is to devote the first four years of college to more generalized and basic studies of the curriculum leaving professional training for the graduate years or at least to the upper division. There may be some merit in reviewing the programs of these academies in this respect with the possibility of unifying the earlier years of study. This would probably have a beneficial effect in developing a national defense force which has greater capacity for thinking in terms of the total defense needs rather than in terms of the separatist tradition of individual departments of the National Military Establishment.

In passing, the question should also be raised as to whether there may be unnecessary overlapping between certain basic training in seamanship offered by the Navy, the Coast Guard Academy, and the merchant marine academies. Because of their rather close relationship particularly in time of national defense emergency it would appear that the possibility of unification of at least a portion of the program should be really seriously reviewed and studied.

## VIII. Summary

There has been a tremendous growth of federal activity in the field of higher education during recent years. This includes extensive activities operated through the regular colleges and universities as well as federally operated higher education. The majority of the departments and independent agencies of the government, through many more of their sub-agencies, are concerned with these programs. While the major considerations as they concern the regular higher institutions of the land are reserved for Chapter 13, a few suggestions or questions related to policy or organization have been raised regarding federal research, extension services, state maritime academies, the Division of Higher Education of the U.S. Office of Education, the Navy program of screening high school graduates, the U.S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School, and the military academies. A number of federal activities, including the education of veterans, which concern all levels of education and thus are of concern to higher education, are considered in the next chapter.

# *Chapter 7.* FEDERAL ACTIVITIES COVERING ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION

The previous two chapters have dealt with federal educational activities which clearly concern the elementary-secondary level and the higher educational level. A number of educational activities of the government are impossible to classify in such a clear-cut manner. For instance, the Veterans Administration has been unable to segregate its funds utilized on the education of veterans in elementary and secondary schools from those funds used for education of veterans in higher institutions. Also a number of its activities such as flight training cannot be classified as being concerned with specific levels of education. Similarly, the Armed Forces Institute program of the National Military Establishment is concerned with raising the educational levels of members of the armed forces at all educational levels. It is just as much concerned with teaching the illiterate to read as it is with assisting men with college courses. These and similar federal activities are included in this chapter.

## I. Education of Special Groups of Individuals

A number of these activities are concerned with the education of special groups of individuals at all levels of education through the regularly constituted educational institutions of the country. The table on page 162 indicates programs in this classification.

The programs for education of veterans under Public Laws 346 and 16 are so well known that it is unnecessary to devote a detailed description to these activities. It will be noted that the sums obligated or available for these purposes constitute the majority of the total federal funds for all educational purposes.

TABLE 24. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL GROUPS OF INDIVIDUALS WHICH CONCERN ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION THROUGH REGULARLY CONSTITUTED INSTITUTIONS

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Veterans Administration (Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education) | P.L. 346 education and training benefits | — | 2,118,819 | 2,610,854 * | 2,059,880 * |
| Veterans Administration (Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education) | P.L. 16 vocational rehabilitation benefits | — | 220,920 | 329,455 * | 297,098 * |
| Veterans Administration (Assistant Administrator for Vocational Rehabilitation and Education) | Administration of above two programs | — | 108,842 | 97,465 | 77,516 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Veterans educational information service | — | 22 | — | — |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Vocational Rehabilitation) | Rehabilitation of disabled in educational institutions | 882 | 1,681 | 1,857 | 2,207 |
| Total ..... | | 882 | 2,450,284 | 3,039,631 | 2,436,701 |

* See Table 28 for revised unofficial estimates.

A few statistical tables will indicate something of the scope and nature of these veterans' programs. The veteran enrollment in the various programs for 1947 and 1948 is indicated by the following two tables.

TABLE 25. AVERAGE ENROLLMENT OF VETERANS, FOR FISCAL YEAR 1947 *

| Program | P.L. 346 | P.L. 16 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Schools of higher learning | 815,707 | 60,944 | 876,651 |
| Below college level and other schools | 400,734 | 26,241 | 426,975 |
| Institutional on-farm training | 95,000(E) | 8,150 | 103,150(E) |
| On-the-job training | 566,988 | 79,130 | 646,118 |
| Total | 1,878,429(E) | 174,465 | 2,052,894(E) |

* Data for this and next three tables obtained from Bureau of the Budget, June 1948.

TABLE 26. AVERAGE ENROLLMENT OF VETERANS, JANUARY 31, 1948, THROUGH APRIL 30, 1948, BY TYPE OF PROGRAM

| Program | P.L. 346 | P.L. 16 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Schools of higher learning | 1,055,549 | 83,622 | 1,139,171 |
| Below college level and other schools | 668,639 | 39,080 | 707,719 |
| Institutional on-farm | 218,551 | 25,584 | 244,135 |
| Self-proprietorship | (191,984) | (23,627) | (215,611) |
| Employer-trained | (26,567) | (1,957) | (28,524) |
| On-the-job training | 483,850 | 102,498 | 586,348 |
| Total | 2,426,589 | 250,784 | 2,677,373 |

It will be noted that in these representative months of 1948 the total enrollment of veterans increased well over 600,000 above the average enrollment of the previous year. There has been a large increase in the institutional on-farm enrollment (136 per cent), an increase of 65 per cent in enrollment below college level and other schools, a 30 per cent increase in enrollment in schools of higher learning, and a 9 per cent decrease in on-the-job training enrollment.

The number of veterans who were in training or who had received training as of April 30, 1948, is indicated in Table 27 on page 164.

It will be noted that nearly 5,500,000 veterans, approximately half of whom were in active training on April 30, 1948, have taken advantage of these federal educational programs for the educa-

TABLE 27. STATISTICS REGARDING TRAINING STATUS OF VETERANS AS OF APRIL 30, 1948

| Item | P.L. 346 | P.L. 16 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total in training | 2,450,925 | 252,386 * | 2,703,311 |
| Total rehabilitated or who have completed courses | 448,806 | 34,039 | 482,845 |
| Number who have exhausted entitlement | 21,238 | — | 21,238 |
| Total in terminated status and not declared rehabilitated | — | 135,658 | 135,658 |
| Number who have terminated for other reasons | 2,098,903 | — | 2,098,903 |
| Total who have been in training | 5,019,872 | 422,083 | 5,441,955 |

* Of these, 40,664 were classified as seriously handicapped.

tion of veterans. A breakdown of federal funds for this program appears below.

TABLE 28. BREAKDOWN OF FUNDS FOR VETERANS EDUCATION, EXCLUSIVE OF ADMINISTRATION, IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS

| Item | P.L. 346 | | | P.L. 16 | | | Total | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Obligated | Available | | Obligated | Available | | Obligated | Available | |
| | 1947 | 1948* | 1949* | 1947 | 1948* | 1949* | 1947 | 1948* | 1949* |
| Subsistence and allowances | 1,551 | 1,654 | 1,800 | 191 | 260 | 214 | 1,742 | 1,914 | 2,014 |
| Tuition and fees | 496 | 802 | 693 | 24 | 55 | 56 | 520 | 857 | 749 |
| Supplies | 11 | 18 | 18 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 12 | 20 | 20 |
| Equipment | 61 | 86 | 86 | 5 | 11 | 9 | 66 | 97 | 95 |
| Total | 2,119 | 2,560 | 2,597 | 221 | 328 | 281 | 2,340 | 2,888 | 2,878 |

* Revised *unofficial* estimates of expenditures, as of June 1948, from Bureau of the Budget.

These programs are among the most significant ventures in education that the federal government ever has undertaken. Their commendable reception by the public at large, by educational institutions, and by veterans is testimony that these programs have been worthwhile. The federal contribution to this pro-

gram extends considerably beyond the sums indicated in the above table in such matters as the federal administration of these programs (almost $97,500,000 in 1948), the furnishing of various educational facilities to educational institutions (over 16,500,000 square feet of building space in classrooms and so forth), and the furnishing of veteran housing at educational institutions (almost 148,000 family or other type living units were furnished by April 30, 1948).

### A. *Public Law 346* ("*G.I. Bill of Rights*")

It is important to add that there has sometimes been a wide disparity between the purpose of the law and the actual practice in this program, particularly with respect to much of the training given in below college level school courses. For example, huge sums have been expended under the law for such things as sport flying, ballroom dancing, hobby photography, and other training in fields offering few vocational opportunities compared to the number of veterans enrolled. This situation was partially corrected by the 1949 Supplemental Independent Offices Appropriation Bill which passed Congress in June of 1948. By this, expenditures were eliminated for courses determined by the Administrator of Veterans Affairs to be avocational or recreational in character, except that flight courses elected for use in the veteran's occupation or contemplated occupation are not to be considered avocational or recreational. Also limitations were placed upon profit schools in which the majority of the enrollment consists of veterans. The following, quoted from the Bureau of the Budget in response to a request for data in connection with this study, will explain the situation which has led to the above limitations on the program:

1. The authority for approving schools, establishments and programs for instruction in the G.I. Bill of Rights is vested in the several States, *not* in the Veterans Administration.

2. The eligible veteran may elect any course on a State-approved list, regardless of whether or not it has any relation to his "readjustment to civilian life" or to a legitimate cultural or vocational objective.

3. Education and training benefits must be continued for the eligible veteran enrolled in the course of his choice as long as he meets the prescribed requirements of the institution of his enrollment, no matter how inferior those requirements may be.

4. The law prescribes no minimum standards of performance, except for job training and to a much lesser extent for farm training. There are none for profit schools, for example.

5. The law specifically prohibits the Federal Government from exercising any supervision or control whatever over any training institution or establishment or any State agency beyond that which was being exercised prior to the enactment of the G.I. Bill of Rights.

6. Some profit schools have given indication that they may challenge the Veterans Administration's legal authority to require an accounting of costs and profits as a basis for determining a "fair and reasonable" charge.

These provisions of the law operate satisfactorily with respect to schools with well-established and well-recognized standards providing veterans with instruction of broad educational value, such as colleges and universities, and schools of secondary or elementary learning. However, they have presented major problems with respect to training given veterans in below college-level profit schools. It is estimated that more than 20 per cent of the total veteran enrollment in all courses are taking courses (many of them very costly) in this type of school. The percentage is expected to continue to increase in the coming months. Many veterans will, of course, receive worth while training in these schools. On the other hand, surveys indicate that a large proportion of veterans are enrolling either in courses for avocational or recreational reasons or in courses providing training in a trade in which there is no reasonable prospect for employment of the majority of veterans jamming into some of these schools, often in response to high pressure advertising.

There is strong evidence that the availability of the Federal subsidy has operated in this field greatly to unbalance supply and demand. It has made it highly profitable for large number of profit schools to start in business to catch the G.I. trade, many of which schools will go out of business when the G.I. program is at an end. For example, flight schools increased by more than 70 per cent in 1947. Many schools have paid practically no attention to occupational placement and cer-

tainly made no effort to restrict enrollment to the number they believe they can place. For a good many of the numerous profit schools which have started in business to take advantage of the G.I. Bill of Rights and a few of the older schools, the emphasis is more on a quick return on investment rather than on a good placement record. For many veterans, training in such courses will be a waste of time and a loss of valuable entitlement to a good education; for the taxpayer it will be a total waste of money.

The Chairman of the Education and Training Subcommittee of the House Committee on Veterans' Affairs estimated in an article in the May 8 issue of *Collier's* magazine that "the Federal Government is spending close to half a billion dollars a year supporting schools that fall far short of serving as benefactors of the veteran."

An article by Albert Q. Maisel in the *Collier's* issue of May 1 as well as a Bureau of the Budget report of February 9, 1948, to the Congress, on "Special Problems Arising Under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act" will illustrate some of the problems in this program.

In summary, these problems grow out of three basic defects in the program:

1. The law provides no method either to the State approving agency or the Federal Government of approving training courses in schools other than those of higher learning, elementary and secondary schools for the individual veteran who has the intention and reasonable prospect of using it for achieving his employment objective while excluding those who have no intention or reasonable prospect of using the training for a legitimate vocational purpose.

2. The State approving agencies in most instances have insufficient funds, staff, and technical know-how to cope with the huge problem of supervising the very large number of profit schools providing training under the G.I. Bill of Rights. The Federal Government is prohibited by law from exercising such supervision.

3. The law sets forth no general standards as a guide to approving and supervising such training.

It appears that in our effort to keep the federal government from exercising any control over the standards and purposes of education in states we have permitted abuses to arise. We are now attempting by a process of negation to eliminate the worst

of these abuses. It would seem that the federal government has a greater right to demand minimal standards than has previously been evidenced in this program.

### *B. Institutional On-farm Training*

The institutional on-farm training program for veterans under P.L. 346 as amended is deserving of special mention due to a number of its rather distinctive features. Certain planning for this program was made in co-ordination with the Division of Vocational Education of the U.S. Office of Education. Considerable responsibility is placed on states and in most cases the state boards for vocational education have assisted with the program. The Veterans Administration re-imburses the states, and through them the local areas, or re-imburses local areas directly, for conducting the program at an agreed cost which is found to be fair and reasonable, including a fair and reasonable allowance for administrative costs. In 32 of the states, as of June 30, 1948, agreements were in existence between the Veterans Administration and the state boards for vocational education (or other designated state agencies) for the operation of the program. In other states, the agreements were with local boards of education or individual schools. Such administration and supervision as is done by staff under the federal program of vocational education is not re-imbursable from Veterans Administration funds.

In some instances, the local high school agriculture teachers assist with the program, but the more prevalent plan is to employ special vocational agriculture teachers for this purpose. Some 11,000 special teachers are currently employed by local boards of education throughout the country for this purpose. The usual ratio is one teacher for each twenty trainees. These teachers conduct the 200 hours of classroom instruction required of each trainee per year and the added and related 100 hours of on-the-farm instruction required for the self-employed veteran or 50 hours required for the employed enrollee. In some states each self-employed trainee must develop a plan for his farm, to

be approved by a special council in each county. On this council the various interests, including county agricultural agent (U.S. Department of Agriculture Extension Program), representatives of the program for vocational education, and leading farmers, are represented. Here the assistance of the various local and federal agencies dealing with related problems are enlisted and co-ordinated. This is an excellent example of co-ordination which might well be extended to other areas of federal concern. The effort is not so much in the direction of defining areas of action and of defending those areas as it is in the direction of attempting to locate means and implementations for strong mutual support of a program. Rather than having an overlapping of jurisdictions, we have co-ordinated and beneficial support.

Most veterans under this are self-proprietors (manager of farms they own or on which they are tenants) while a minority work for other farmers. In June 1948, ninety per cent of veterans under this program were self-proprietors.

*C. General*

The vocational rehabilitation program of the Federal Security Agency is involved with many activities outside of the field of education. Since 1943 its emphasis has changed from vocational re-education to physical rehabilitation or restoration. The sums indicated in Table 24 are only those portions of the total funds for this activity which can be definitely traced to educational institutions for the vocational re-education of individuals in need of rehabilitation. Insofar as the programs of this section of our report have concerned or operated through the regularly constituted educational institutions of the country, it is believed that they have been highly effective both in the interests of the institutions and in the national interest.

It is believed that, except for a few matters mentioned above and which primarily involve profit institutions, these programs should continue much in their present form. There are those who have felt that the Veterans Administration has curtailed

states' rights in education by its procedure in dealing directly with educational institutions. Were this program primarily concerned with the secondary or elementary schools of the country, for which all states have a central control or operating staff, there would be merit in this objection. Very few states, however, have any over-all centralized state offices for dealing with higher educational institutions and even when such exist they have little or no control over private higher educational institutions. On the higher educational level particularly, these private institutions constitute a very definite part and parcel of the regularly constituted higher educational program of the land. Thus we know of no currently available means whereby the bulk of the program of veteran education and its administration could have been decentralized to the states. In fact, authority to approve schools which has been delegated to states has been the basic cause of the major difficulties which this program has encountered. The blame for this should not be placed upon the states, however, but rather on the federal government for not having previously set minimal standards for the selection of those educational institutions through which veterans might be educated.

## II. "Civilian" Education of the National Military Establishment

Among the many interesting and valuable educational contributions of World War II has been the growth of education similar to that offered in our regular institutions of the country by the armed forces. This has been motivated by several conditions. In the modern type of military training and procedure the general educational level and competency of individuals is an important factor. The opportunity to gain general educational advancement is an added incentive to enlistments. And beyond this, credit should be given to our military leaders for their sincere desire to raise the educational level of society at large. In the long run the effectiveness of the military forces is closely allied with the effectiveness of individuals at large throughout the coun-

try. The programs of the following table indicate the concern of the armed forces in this field.

TABLE 29. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES OPERATED BY THE ARMED FORCES TO GIVE "CIVILIAN" EDUCATION AT ALL EDUCATIONAL LEVELS TO FEDERAL EMPLOYEES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment—Army (Special Staff T I and E) | United States Armed Forces Institute and class instruction | — | 2,973 | 2,377 | 4,025 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | Educational services including USAFI | — | 699 | 594 | 663 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (U.S. Marine Corps) | U.S. Marine Corps Institute | 20 | 152 | 160 | 180 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (U.S. Marine Corps) | USAFI | — | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Total ..... | | 20 | 3,825 | 3,132 | 4,869 |

The brief descriptions under the Army and Navy of Chapter 2 should be consulted for further information about these programs.

The Armed Forces Institute is operated for the benefit of the Army, Air Force, Navy, and Marine Corps. Its over-all educational policies are determined by a committee of leading civilian educators and Army and Navy officers. Its correspondence courses, many of them prepared by leading educational institutions in the country, cover a broad variety of subjects at all levels of education. The Army reported an active enrollment in these correspondence and self-teaching courses to be 145,000 in May of 1948. Enrolling in one of some 6,000 college courses made available by USAFI through contractual arrangements with 59 civilian co-operating non-profit colleges and universities were 10,000 individuals. Sixty thousand individuals attended classes organized at posts, camps, and stations given by local education officers.

Five thousand were enrolled in regular classes at near-by civilian schools and colleges, the Army paying 75 per cent of tuition costs. Most of this study is during the soldiers' off-duty time. However, a number of courses which are closely related to the accomplishment of the military mission are offered during duty time, as for example courses in clerical subjects for training clerks and typists, language courses for individuals to be assigned overseas, literacy training for illiterates, and special classes for individuals with less than the equivalent of an eighth grade education. Over 5,000 Army and Air Force personnel are qualifying for high school diplomas or high school equivalency certificates each month. Records of study accomplished and results of the standing of individuals on the General Educational Development ("GED") Test are generally accepted for credit in the regular institutions of the country.

These programs are to be commended. They are in line with good military policy as well as good general social policy. Their continued support is highly warranted.

## III. Office of Education Activities Concerned with All Levels of Education

It will have been noted previously that several activities of the Office of Education which could be clearly segregated as referring to elementary-secondary education or to higher education have been listed. A number of the activities of this Office concern all levels of education and are included in Table 30.

The Office of Education is considered with some detail in Chapter 10.

## IV. Activities in the International Interest

Two programs of the Office of Education concern education at all levels in the international interest. They are included in the following table.

TABLE 30. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES FOR GENERAL ASSISTANCE, LEADERSHIP, AND RESEARCH TO ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION THROUGH THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION [a]

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —auxiliary services | NA | 95 | 114 | 129 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —central services | NA | 364 | 436 | 449 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration of Office of Education | NA | 65 | 110 | 86 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Total administration of Office of Education (no 1940 breakdown available as in 1947, 1948, and 1949) | 800 | [b] | [c] | [d] |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Surplus property utilization | — | 694 | 418 | NA |
| Total | | 800+ | 1,218 | 1,078 | 664+ |

[a] See Tables 9 (Chapter 5), 15 (Chapter 5), and 20 (Chapter 6).
[b] $1,402 thousands distributed to various accounts.
[c] $1,791 thousands distributed to various accounts.
[d] $1,898 thousands distributed to various accounts.

TABLE 31. FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN THE INTERNATIONAL INTEREST CONCERNING ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION THROUGH THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | General administration —international education | NA | 51 | 67 | 72 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Co-operation with American Republics—exchange of teachers and students | — | 195 | 374 | 403 |
| Total | | NA | 246 | 441 | 475 |

## V. Miscellaneous

A number of federal activities which either cover all levels of education or cannot be designated by level of education are included in the following table.

Table 32. Miscellaneous Federal Educational Activities Which Concern All Levels of Education

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Chief of Naval Operations) | Education of natives in Trust Territory and on Guam | NA | NA | 537 | 400 |
| Justice (Federal Prison System) | Academic and occupational education of prisoners | 205(E) | 275 | 275 | 275 |
| Justice (Federal Prison System) | Federal Prison Industries, Inc., vocational training | 20 | 369 | 338 | 380 |
| Federal Security Agency | Columbia Institution for the Deaf—federal support | 150 | 246 | 259 | NA |
| Federal Security Agency | American Printing House for the Blind—federal support | 125 | 125 | 125 | 125 |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Educational relationships | NA | 82 | NA | NA |
| War Assets Administration | Sale and donation of surplus property | — | NA | NA | NA |
| Total ..... | | 500+(E) | 1,097+ | 1,534+ | 1,180+ |

In its program for education of natives on Guam and other island areas, the Navy has included basic elementary and secondary education as well as a considerable offering in certain areas of higher education. Although one might raise a question as to

whether the Navy is a proper federal agency to be operating public school systems, one may also ask the question, "What agency of the government could perform this particular activity at these locations more effectively?" Any other agency of the government would of necessity have to duplicate staff and facilities, while the Navy already has extensive facilities in these areas. The problem seems rather to be one of proper co-ordination between the various agencies of the government which are responsible for the education of indigenous peoples. A possible solution for this situation has been suggested in Section V of Chapter 5.

One might raise the question as to whether the professional staff of the Office of Education and particularly the Division of Vocational Education could be of assistance in advisement in connection with the education of federal prisoners. It is assumed that if such assistance is needed, the Department of Justice should initiate the request.

The Columbia Institution for the Deaf (in the District of Columbia) and the American Printing House for the Blind (in Kentucky) are somewhat unique in their federal sponsorship. Howard University might be added to these two in this respect. Basically these institutions are private corporations. Through long history the government has evidenced an interest in them by continued financial support. The unique place of these institutions in American life and in meeting the needs of special groups therein warrant continued federal support. Were this support withdrawn, definite curtailment of essential services would take place. Each institution, to a considerable extent, does serve people in all parts of the country.

There is no indication within the activities of this classification of overlapping jurisdictions or of other matters which should concern this report.

# *Chapter 8.* UNCLASSIFIED EDUCATIONAL AND CLOSELY RELATED ACTIVITIES

The previous three chapters have dealt with classifications of federal activities in the field of education which directly affect, operate through, or are similar to the regularly constituted schools and higher institutions of the nation (category "A"). Chapter 9 will treat of educational and closely associated training activities of the government which are clearly not linked with these regularly constituted educational institutions (category "B"). A few programs which cannot be so clearly classified, either because they involve both category "A" and "B" activities or because they are otherwise somewhat indefinite in this respect, are considered in this chapter.

## I. Pre- or In-service Training for Government Service

Five programs are identified as appropriate to this chapter which concern pre- or in-service education or training for service in the federal government. These are listed in Table 33 on page 177.

A review of the brief descriptions of these programs which appear in Chapter 2 will indicate that most of these activities deal to some extent through higher institutions of the land or offer some phases of study which parallel that offered in regular schools. They offer still further evidence that the schools and colleges of the country are being used rather extensively for the pre- or in-service education and training of government personnel.

TABLE 33. FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES FOR PRE- OR IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE WHICH CANNOT BE CLEARLY DESIGNATED AS IN EITHER CATEGORY "A" OR "B"

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | Postgraduate school | 218 | 774 | 829 | 937 |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Ships) | In-service for scientific and technical employees | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Treasury (U.S. Coast Guard) | Graduate study for officers | 8 | 18 | 20 | 32 |
| Treasury (U.S. Coast Guard) | U.S. Coast Guard Training Station | NA | 23 | 50 | 71 |
| U.S. Civil Service Commission | In-service training of government personnel | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Total ..... | | 226+ | 815+ | 899+ | 1,040+ |

## II. PROGRAMS IN THE INTERNATIONAL INTEREST

What has been stated in the previous section applies as well to four activities which concern the exchange of persons in the international interest. Table 34 on page 178 presents these.

One program, not included in the inventory of Chapter 2, should be mentioned as illustrative of the fact that there are probably many federal activities which are somewhat peripheral to our definition of education. The Branch of Commercial Fisheries, Fisheries Educational Service, of the Department of the Interior has $75,000 available annually for "promoting the free flow of domestically produced fishery products in commerce by conducting an educational service." Among other activities conducted by the Section, fish cookery demonstrations and fishery exhibits are presented before groups of consumers, school lunchroom operators, restaurant managers, and others to instruct them

TABLE 34. FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN THE INTERNATIONAL INTEREST WHICH CANNOT BE CLEARLY DESIGNATED IN EITHER CATEGORY "A" OR "B"

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | Administration of 3 programs | — | 189(E) | 37(E) | 38(E) |
| Commerce | Philippine rehabilitation technical training | — | 429 | 362 | 404 |
| Commerce | Inter-American Exchange of Persons Program | — | 465 | 229 | 222 |
| Smithsonian Institution | Co-operation with American Republics program—anthropology | — | 140 | 94 | 114 |
| Total ..... | | — | 1,223(E) | 722(E) | 778(E) |

in the best methods of preparation of fishery products. Some group training of fishermen and fishery industry shore workers is conducted through visual aid presentations. These two activities account for perhaps 35 per cent of the funds authorized during each fiscal year. The balance is used principally in the preparation of educational materials.

# *Chapter 9.* FEDERAL ACTIVITIES NOT CONCERNING REGULAR INSTITUTIONS

A number of federal educational or training activities, concerned with in-service programs for federal personnel, the international interest, and the education or training of non-federal employees in specialized fields of study not normally in the curriculum of the regular schools of the country, clearly do not concern the regularly constituted schools and colleges of the country. They are included in this chapter primarily for the purpose of inventory. The analysis and appraisal of these activities is not a matter for consideration in this study devoted to education. The close relationship of these to education and the fact that the methods and materials of education are used in these warrants their inclusion here. No listing of the total educational enterprise of the federal government would be complete without them.

## I. In-service Education and Training for Government Service

The programs of in-service education and training of government personnel shown in Table 35 have been identified. Because the operations of an agency of the government may often merge with its program for training of personnel, it should not be assumed that this is a complete inventory of such activities. This merging has made it impossible, in many cases, to identify funds involved. Also many activities may be so informal in nature that they cannot be easily identified. This listing should be considered as representative of the more formal in-service training activities.

Table 21 of Chapter 6 listed many programs of a pre- or in-service nature which utilized the higher institutions of the land.

TABLE 35. FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES NOT CONCERNING THE REGULAR SCHOOLS OF THE COUNTRY FOR PRE- OR IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| State (Foreign Service Institute) | In-service training | 0 | 169 | 199 | 228 |
| National Military Establishment—Army | In-service training | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Medicine and Surgery) | In-service Naval hospitals and schools | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Aeronautics) | In-service technical training | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | In-service training in special Navy schools | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | In-service training in enlisted, functional, and fleet schools | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | In-service Naval Air technical training | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Naval Personnel) | In-service Command and Staff colleges | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Bureau of Ships) | In-service for clerical and technical employees, etc. | NA | NA | NA | NA |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Industrial Relations) | In-service for Naval civilians | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (Office of Naval Research) | In-service research laboratory training | NA | 31 | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Navy (U.S. Marine Corps) | In-service military schools | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | Air War College | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | Air Command and Staff School | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | Air Tactical School | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | Air Force Special Staff School | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | AAF Institute of Technology | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| National Military Establishment—Air Force (Air University) | School of Aviation Medicine | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Justice (Immigration and Naturalization Service) | In-service training | 30 | 39 | 7 | 84 |
| Justice (Federal Bureau of Investigation) | In-service training for special agents | 130 | 342 | 439 | 381 |
| Commerce (Civil Aeronautics Administration) | In-service training—airways and safety | 370 | 490 | 538 | 540 |
| Commerce (Weather Bureau) | Indoctrination training | 0 | NA | NA | NA |
| Treasury (U.S. Coast Guard) | Aviation training for officers | 185 | 69 | 84 | 168 |
| Treasury (Co-ordinator of Enforcement Agencies) | In-service training | 13 | 17 | 17 | 17 |

TABLE 35 (*Continued*)

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Treasury (Bureau of Internal Revenue) | In-service training | 84 | 183 | 174 | 174 |
| Treasury (Bureau of Customs) | In-service training | 8 | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| Interior (National Park Service) | In-service training | NA | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| Interior (Office of the Secretary) | In-service training for supervisors | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Veterans Administration (Department of Medicine and Surgery) | In-service training operated by VA | NA | 311 | 1,800 | 4,387 |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Survey of training program for Air Training Command (Air Force) | — | — | 23 * | 0 * |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Hospital division training of medical and hospital personnel | NA | 222 | 422 | 378 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Training PHS personnel in mental health | — | — | — | 53 |
| Federal Security Agency (Social Security Administration) | In-service re Social Security Act | 30(E) | 46(E) | 50(E) | 50(E) |
| Interstate Commerce Commission | In-service training | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Tennessee Valley Authority | Employee training | NA | 61 | NA | NA |
| Railroad Retirement Board | In-service training | NA | 94 | 44 | 46 |
| Total ..... | | 850+(E) | 2,102+(E) | 3,827+(E) | 6,534+(E) |

* Funds remain available until June 30, 1950.

When is it more desirable to utilize these or other already existing institutions? When is it more desirable for the government to operate its own programs for education and training? A comprehensive study to find the answers to these questions should be made. Similarly, answers are needed to such questions as: Is there needless overlapping at some points in these activities? Could consolidation, as for instance in certain common training areas of the Army, Navy, and Air Force, be effected to advantage? Is there a possibility that a federal educational agency could furnish desirable professional services in planning these programs, thus increasing effectiveness and eliminating necessity of duplicating professional staff in education? For instance, is it necessary or desirable to have technical staff and facilities for the production of training films and other audio-visual aids in several agencies of the government? The same question might apply to other fields including that of subject matter and psychological tests and measurements for personnel and training uses. What might be the role of the agency having major over-all responsibility for federal personnel policies and administration in these regards? It is believed that research and study into such questions as these may be of assistance in obtaining higher effectiveness in the government service as well as in eliminating unnecessary overlapping of staff and services.

## II. Programs in the International Interest

Table 36 presents programs in the international interest which are appropriate to this chapter.

## III. Programs Primarily for Non-federal Employees

The federal government has embarked on a number of specialized programs primarily for the education and training of individuals for non-governmental service. These are indicated in Table 37 which appears on page 185.

Practically all of these programs train personnel in fields close

TABLE 36. FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES, NOT CONCERNING THE REGULAR SCHOOLS OF THE COUNTRY, IN THE INTERNATIONAL INTEREST

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated (in thousands of dollars) 1940 | Available (in thousands of dollars) 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Executive Office of the President (Bureau of the Budget) | Co-operation with American Republics (CAR) | — | 34 | 32 | 30 |
| State (International Exchange of Persons Division) | Interchange of specialists | — | 114 | * | * |
| State (UNESCO Relations Staff) | Salaries and expenses | — | 313 | 312 | 347 |
| State (UNESCO) | U.S. contribution | — | 1,530(E) | 3,500(E) | 3,636(E) |
| State (Division of Libraries and Institutes) | U.S. cultural centers | — | 630 | 476 | 462 |
| State (Division of Libraries and Institutes) | Educational information | — | 10 | 16 | 10 |
| National Military Establishment—Army (Civil Affairs Division, SSUSA) | Re-education and re-orientation of peoples in liberated and occupied areas controlled by AMG | — | 3,540 | 12,799 | 14,064 † |
| Labor | CAR | — | 63 | 90 | 153 |
| Interior (Geological Survey) | CAR | — | 20 | 12 | 12 |
| Interior (Fish and Wildlife Service) | Philippine rehabilitation | — | 100 | 192 | 192 |
| Interior (Fish and Wildlife Service) | CAR | — | 23 | 10 | 19 |
| Interior (Bureau of Reclamation) | CAR | — | 5 | 11 | 12 |
| Interior (Bureau of Mines) | CAR | — | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| National Archives | CAR | — | 6 | 0 | 6 |
| Federal Communications Commission | CAR | — | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| Smithsonian Institution (National Gallery of Art) | CAR—art exhibits | — | 22 | 6 | — |
| U.S. Tariff Commission | CAR | — | 8 | 0 | 7 |
| Institute of Inter-American Affairs | Co-operative education programs with other American Republics | — | 1,075 | 1,315 | 1,100 |
| Total | | — | 7,495(E) | 18,774(E) | 20,054(E) |

* Sums are included in interchange of professors' activity elsewhere.
† Submitted as budget estimate.

TABLE 37. FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES NOT CONCERNING THE REGULAR SCHOOLS OF THE COUNTRY, OPERATED PRIMARILY FOR NON-FEDERAL EMPLOYEES

| Department or agency | Identification of program | Obligated / Available (in thousands of dollars) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1940 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 |
| Justice (Federal Bureau of Investigation) | National Police Academy | 4 | 8 | 12 | 7 |
| Justice (Federal Bureau of Investigation) | General and specialized police training | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| Interior (National Park Service) | Yosemite School of Field Natural History | NA | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Interior (Bureau of Mines) | Safety training | NA | NA | 250 | 250 |
| Interior (Bureau of Mines) | Coal mine safety | NA | NA | 225 | 314 |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | Re-training licensed personnel | NA | 2,767 | 1,276 | 1,275(E) |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | Training licensed and unlicensed personnel | NA | 1,954 | 1,606 | 1,585(E) |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | U.S. Maritime Service Institute | NA | 227 | 125 | 125(E) |
| U.S. Maritime Commission (Bureau of Training) | Training of seamen, general administration, etc. | NA | 1,082 | 480 | 441(E) |
| Federal Security Agency (Office of Education) | Procurement of visual aids for mental hygiene program of U.S. Public Health Service | — | — | 40 * | 0 * |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service) | Training institutes for practicing physicians in mental health | — | — | 42 | 20 |
| Federal Security Agency (Public Health Service, Bureau of State Services) | Training of health department personnel | — | 281 | 449 | 495 |
| Total ..... | | 4+ | 6,320+ | 4,506+ | 4,513+(E) |

* Funds remain available until June 30, 1950.

to the national interest. The existence of a well-manned merchant fleet is a national concern at all times, and particularly so in times when national defense needs are paramount. A coal mine disaster is always a matter of grave national concern. The proper policing of the country, and the co-ordination of crime investigation activities among local, state, and federal agencies is a concern of all. To have properly trained medical and public health personnel generally available is important to the welfare of the people of the country. Important as these are, why stop here? An adequate supply of individuals capable and skilled in the building of homes is currently important for the national welfare. The national welfare is also very close to our effectiveness in having capable and skilled individuals to teach in our schools, to man our railroads, to transmit our communications, to assess our taxable property, to sell us our food, to supply us with proper clothes, and a myriad of other activities and services which concern us as individuals or as a collective body of individuals. It is apparent that we cannot carry this policy of federal training of non-governmental employees to its logical conclusion unless we would have a paternalistic state. We are correct in evolving a policy that the federal government should train non-governmental employees in fields not available in our regularly constituted institutions of the country which are closely allied with the national defense. Beyond this, we are less certain. A strong democratic nation must have strength in the grass roots of its individuals, communities, and states. Insofar as federal activities help build strength and initiative here, they serve the cause of democracy. Insofar as they tend to develop a paternalistic federalism they antagonize our basic philosophy of government. While mindful of the welfare of individuals and of the varied interests in the nation, we must guard against the paternalistic approach. The method by which these activities are carried out may be the crux of the situation. A maximum of responsibility must be placed on the individual, the community, and the state.

# *Chapter 10.* THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Although it will have been observed in the previous chapters that the United States Office of Education has a minor role in the total educational enterprise of the federal government which concerns the elementary, secondary, or higher institutions of the country, it is essential that something of its history, mission, and organization be understood. In a treatment of either federal policy or organization relative to education, this Office must be considered. Following is a brief description of this agency of the government.

## I. History

The mid-1800's saw a heightened interest in public education in the states which was greatly stimulated by the Civil War and its aftermath. The limitations on the effectiveness of the several states in building an adequate educational system when working independently became increasingly apparent to educators and statesmen alike. The desirability of a national educational headquarters, which would study educational problems and collect and disseminate educational information, became increasingly apparent.

As a result, early in 1866 Representative Garfield of Ohio introduced a bill to establish a department of education in the federal government. The Congressional debates which followed clearly indicated the desire to refrain from any centralization of educational authority in the federal government which might infringe upon the basic responsibilities of states. The opinion was expressed that the federal interest would be furthered, as better ed-

ucation in the states would be a factor in preventing a recurrence of such a disaster as the Civil War. It was felt that no educated people would be led into revolt.

The bill passed Congress by a narrow majority and was signed in March of 1867. It specified a Department of Education, without Cabinet rank, for the purpose of

> . . . collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.[1]

It further specified that the President should appoint a commissioner of education to receive $4,000 per year and, among other things, that the commissioner should report to Congress each year "the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which the department is established." [2]

In the following year, Congress changed the name of the new agency to "Office of Education" and placed it in the Department of the Interior where it remained until July 1, 1939. On that date it was transferred to the Federal Security Agency. In 1870 the name was again changed to "Bureau of Education," which was retained until the name "Office of Education" was restored in 1929.

It will be noted from the basic act establishing the Office of Education as quoted above, its initial purposes were to:

(1) Collect statistics and facts to show the condition and progress of education;

(2) Diffuse information to aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and

[1] 14 Stat. 434.

[2] The same.

(3) Otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

These are still considered to be the primary mission of the Office. They are attained through research, service, and leadership, which should continue to be the major means by which the Office accomplishes its mission.

The Congress from time to time, however, has seen fit to provide expanding activities in the actual operation of programs by the Office of Education. A few of these activities are worthy of mention.

Responsibility for the education of native children in Alaska was given to the Office in 1885 where it remained until transferred to the Office of Indian Affairs in 1931 on the grounds that the Office of Education should not be concerned with the administration of schools. For a number of years the Office of Education was responsible for the Reindeer Service in Alaska.

Under the "Second Morrill Act" of 1890, the Secretary of the Interior was given responsibility for the administration of the fiscal grants for resident instruction in land grant colleges. This function was delegated to the Office of Education where it still remains.

The federal administration and supervision of the program of aid to states for vocational education was vested in the Federal Board for Vocational Education by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. In 1933 the functions and staff of this Board were transferred to the Office of Education. With this program came that for vocational rehabilitation which remained with the Office of Education until 1943 when a separate office was set up within the Federal Security Agency. The administration and supervision of the program for vocational education, however, has remained with the Office of Education.

In the years following 1933, the Office was engaged in the administration of a number of new operational programs. It had certain responsibilities for the Civilian Conservation Corps. A number of special projects financed by emergency work relief funds were undertaken, including the educational radio project

and the public affairs forums. Later it was given limited responsibilities in connection with the National Youth Administration program. With the approach of the war, it was placed in charge of the programs for training of war production workers, including engineering, science, and management war training. Later it was given responsibility for the administration of the student war loans program, and shared certain responsibility for the Lanham Act in providing educational facilities to communities where war-incurred federal activity had created financial burdens which could not be carried locally. With the passing of the war, the Office has been given added responsibilities in the joint administration of programs involved with disposition of surplus properties to educational institutions, in providing facilities for the education of veterans, and in the international exchange of persons program by transfer of funds from the Department of State.

While these activities have demonstrated an effective ability of the Office to be flexible in terms of continuing or emergency needs of the country, they have involved it in activities which are secondary to its historic mission. It should be added, however, that the Office has always been a champion of the rights of the states to develop their educational programs, and has insisted whenever possible that programs operate by placing initiative and responsibility on state school systems and on individual higher institutions of learning. The degree to which administrative detail can be carried on without undue interference with the major responsibilities of research, service, and leadership is a matter of concern which will be treated later in this report.

The table on the opposite page gives statistical information which indicates something of the historical growth and activities of the Office.

## II. Organization

In the 1944 *Annual Report of the United States Office of Education*, the Commissioner outlined in considerable detail a plan

TABLE 38. SELECTED STATISTICS FOR THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION BY YEARS *

| Year | Personnel | | | Operating costs of Office of Education | Travel | Total operating costs of Office of Education | Transfers to Office of Education from other agencies | Amount of grants-in-aid administered by Office of Education |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Professional | Clerical | Total | | | | | |
| 1870 | – | – | – | $ 9,150 | $ – | $ 9,150 | $ – | $ – |
| 1875 | – | – | – | 43,825 | – | 43,825 | – | – |
| 1880 | – | – | – | 37,116 | – | 37,116 | – | – |
| 1885 | – | – | – | 76,239 | – | 76,239 | – | – |
| 1890 | – | – | – | 91,932 | – | 91,932 | – | 710,000 |
| 1895 | – | – | – | 112,914 | – | 112,914 | – | 997,500 |
| 1900 | – | – | – | 101,180 | – | 101,180 | – | 1,255,000 |
| 1905 | – | – | – | 99,941 | – | 99,941 | – | 1,225,000 |
| 1910 | – | – | – | 122,200 | – | 122,200 | – | 2,212,000 |
| 1915 | – | – | – | 175,500 | – | 175,500 | – | 2,705,000 |
| 1920 | – | – | – | 507,629 | – | 507,629 | – | 5,875,500 |
| 1925 | – | – | – | 549,303 | – | 549,303 | – | 10,150,075 |
| 1930 | – | – | – | 659,610 | 79,534 | 739,144 | – | 11,770,980 |
| 1935 | 81 | 81 | 162 | 540,984 | 46,536 | 587,520 | 20,129 | 13,963,603 |
| 1940 | 118 | 119 | 237 | 862,570 | 84,510 | 947,080 | 862,148 | 28,055,000 |
| 1945 | 199 | 296 | 495 | 1,864,415 | 234,470 | 2,098,885 | 1,488,072 | 81,965,000 |
| 1946 | 155 | 236 | 391 | 1,313,577 | 176,791 | 1,490,368 | 1,093,149 | 26,365,000 |
| 1947 | 129 | 157 | 286 | 1,346,747 | 122,504 | 1,469,251 | 1,100,186 | 27,678,680 |
| 1948 | 166 | 166 | 332 | 1,707,448 | 91,500 | 1,798,948 | 962,548 | 31,649,065 |

* Information furnished by U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 7 June 1948.

of re-organization of the Office to improve its service. This was based on the assumption that

> The U.S. Office of Education should be strengthened and re-organized in order that it may be prepared to do its indispensable part in giving national leadership and assistance to the educational systems and institutions of the several States and their local communities in meeting the long-term educational demands of the post-war period.[3]

After stating the need for re-organization, the *Report* continued:

*Summary of Broad Functions of a Federal Office of Education*

In sum, bearing clearly in mind that the control and administration of education are State and local functions, and assuming that a spirit of cooperation and mutual helpfulness continues to exist between the States and the Federal Government in the field of education, the broad functions which the U.S. Office of Education should be prepared to carry on will include:

1. The collection of information with respect to education in the states and in other countries so as to make possible intelligent comparisons and conclusions regarding the efficiency of educational programs.
2. The formulation and recommendation of minimum educational standards which ought to be made to prevail in the schools and colleges of all the States and the preparation of suggested proposals and plans for improving various educational practices, arrived at by cooperative planning among private and public educational organizations and lay groups, such recommendations and proposals to be influential only if their merit and appropriateness warrant voluntary acceptance by the States and institutions.
3. The provision of services of a national character that cannot well be undertaken by single States acting alone, *e.g.*, the collection, interpretation, and dissemination of national statistics, the conduct of national and other important surveys, the convening of conferences of national significance.
4. Pointing out desirable educational ends and procedures, evaluating educational trends and giving educational advice and discriminating praise.

[3] *Annual Report of the United States Office of Education for the Fiscal Year 1944*, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C., 1945, p. 67.

5. The offering of consultative services to States, school systems, and higher educational institutions on problems of reorganization, finance, administration, and curriculum.

6. The coordination of government activities relating to education through schools and colleges.

In all such functions it will be apparent that encouragement and stimulation rather than control are envisaged as the objectives of the Office of Education with respect to education in the States.[4]

Soon the plan for re-organization was placed in effect, although most divisions are still staffed in only skeleton form. In this connection, some criticism has been leveled at the Office for having too many top-flight specialists and administrators in proportion to individuals in lower positions. The Office has believed that, if it is to develop more status in leadership and service to the schools of the nation, it must have capable men and women on its staff. To this end, if only a few positions could be filled in the divisions of the Office, as has often been the case, an effort has been made to bring strong personnel to top positions. It is argued that to fill subordinate positions first would deny competent professional leadership and service to the states and unduly complicate personnel problems if more competent individuals were added at the top later. A tradition of relative incompetency, started early in the re-organization, would jeopardize the whole program. The Divisions of Secondary Education and of Higher Education are cases in point. The high type individuals recently brought to leadership in these divisions, even though the subordinate staffs therein are as yet very small, have already demonstrated a degree of leadership and service to the schools of the country out of proportion to the size of these divisions. Within limits, it is believed that the Office has been justified in its policy of giving priority to the filling of top positions when its appropriations are insufficient to fill all positions which are encompassed in its long-range plans.

The re-organization placed the activities of the Office in eight divisions. The Division of Elementary Education has for its pur-

[4] The same, p. 75.

pose the development of a continuous program of service which will make for the improvement of the elementary school programs throughout the country. The four sub-groups of this division are devoted to elementary school organization and supervision, teacher education, instructional problems, and exceptional children and youth. In May of 1948 no staff members were assigned to the sub-group for teacher education.

The Division of Secondary Education was created to serve the areas of secondary education not served by the Division of Vocational Education. Over the years, the Office of Education has given a great deal of assistance to schools on matters involving vocational education, while comparatively little help had been given regarding other matters of concern to the secondary schools of the country. This division, although still much smaller than the Division of Vocational Education, is making an effort to balance the services of the Office in respect to all aspects of secondary education. The three sub-groups of the division are devoted to secondary school organization and supervision, teacher education, and instructional problems. As with the Division of Elementary Education, in May of 1948 no staff members had been assigned to the sub-group for teacher education.

The Division of Higher Education is designed to serve more adequately the needs of colleges and universities. The three sub-groups of the division are organization and administration, professional education (only one specialist had been appointed by May 1948 and he was in the field of engineering education), and arts and sciences education. This division is very sketchily staffed.

The Division of Vocational Education is by far the largest purely educational division of the Office as now constituted, employing some eighty individuals over half of whom are professional personnel. This division is responsible for the administration of the federal-state co-operative vocational education program. Its sub-groups are concerned with state plans operations and program planning operations, the latter being divided into agricultural education, trade and industrial education, home eco-

nomics education, business education, and occupational information and guidance. In the spring of 1948 the function of auditing of federal vocational funds in the states was transferred to the Federal Security Agency offices.

The Division of Central Services brings together in one division those services that are necessary to facilitate the operations of the Office of Education as a whole. Its sub-groups are research and statistical service, information and publications, Office of Education library, and administrative management and services (internal "housekeeping" for the Office). In 1948, the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency moved the education library to the Federal Security Agency library and withdrew the information and publications section to the Agency over-all information and publications section.

The Division of International Educational Relations carries on activities designed to aid in interpreting United States life and culture through educational agencies abroad and to help our people understand and appreciate the life and civilization of other countries. Its sub-groups are devoted to American Republics educational relations, European educational relations, British Empire educational relations, and Near and Far East educational relations. The last two had no personnel assigned thereto in 1948.

The Division of Auxiliary Services brings together six units representing somewhat diverse functions, as follows: services to libraries; administration of school and college health services; school-community recreation; problems of school lunch programs (which had no personnel in 1948); educational use of radio; and visual aids to education.

The Division of School Administration has for its purpose cooperation with the states and local educational authorities in formulating and carrying on essential studies and services in the field of school administration. Its sub-groups, indicating something of its activities, are as follows: general administration; school finance; school legislation; school housing; and (educational) business administration. The last sub-group had no per-

sonnel and other sub-groups were scantily staffed in May of 1948.

The Office of the Commissioner of Education in 1948 had on its immediate staff one Deputy Commissioner, one Associate Commissioner, and five secretaries.

Possibly agreement on a more clear-cut role for the Office of Education would enhance its opportunities for better internal organization. If its historic role is to remain predominant it is believed that a number of changes should be made. Actually the child progresses by continuous growth throughout his school experience. Our most advanced school systems of the country have attempted to set up their administrative and supervisorial services to encourage rather than to impede consideration of this continuous growth process. To this end they have organized their top administrative offices so that curriculum, for instance, is planned as a whole for both elementary and secondary schools. If we are to have articulation between levels of the school system it is essential that research and advisement not be arbitrarily bifurcated. Thus it seems that some more functional organization than that which duplicates and separates school organization and supervision, teacher education and instructional problems, into a Division of Elementary Education and a Division of Secondary Education can be found.

A number of other questions should be raised relative to this organization, of which the following may be illustrative. Is it desirable for the Division of Secondary Education to have separate specialists in organization and supervision for large high schools, and for small and rural high schools? Is it necessary, for instance, to have "re-imbursable" home economics (with federal vocational education assistance) problems referred to the Division of Vocational Education, while "non-re-imbursable" (supported entirely from state and local sources) home economics problems are referred to the Division of Secondary Education? Why should the Division of School Administration deal with certain administrative problems, while others go to sub-groups for School Organization and Supervision in the Division of Elementary and of Secondary Education? Is it necessary or desirable to have specialists in

school health problems located in three divisions of the Office?

It will have been noted that three functions have recently been removed from the Office of Education to the central offices of the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency: Office of Education library, auditing of educational grants to states, and the information and publications service. If the motive for this removal has been to improve services to the schools of the land, such a move may have much to commend it. If, however, it is for the purpose of amassing more power for the sake of power in the office of the Administrator, it is to be condemned.

The Office of Education library is one of the outstanding libraries of this field. Its purpose is primarily to aid in the researches of, and requests for assistance which come to, the Office. Its librarians have been just as much research assistants and research bibliographers as they have been librarians. Its use as a research tool should be increased rather than diminished. While we would support any sincere attempt to make library services more effective by centralization and amalgamation, we would decry any move which would interfere with the primary function of this library.

In the auditing of educational grants to states, the primary one being that for vocational education, we believe that the major concern should be that the general and specific purposes for which the federal moneys are granted be carried out by the states. Certainly the government, in making grants, should ascertain that its moneys are being used for the purposes for which they were intended. The C. P. A. type of audit will not necessarily be satisfactory in this respect. By too great or limited focus on fiscal statements, it may easily overlook more fundamental considerations of the nature of the educational programs which are purchased by the funds. The Congress has been quite specific in defining the nature of the vocational educational program. If this policy is to continue, it is believed that the audit must be in terms of both fiscal and educational program factors. The Office of Education has responsibility for the administration of the vocational education program in co-operation with the states. It

has a "know-how" in dealing with state educational agencies. It has the staff for evaluation of educational programs. Can administrative responsibility and audit responsibility for a professional program of this type be separated at the federal level? Will the best educational interests of the government and of the states be favored by such a division of responsibility? We think not.

Much that has been said of the two previous activities could be restated for the information and publications service of the Office. The diffusing of information about education is one of the major functions of the Office by basic act of Congress. The degree to which the centralization of this function at the Federal Security Agency level increases or decreases the ability of the Office to carry out its Congressional mandate on a highly professional level will be the test as to whether this has been a wise move.

While discussing the Office of Education library it may be well to mention a related problem. Increasingly the Library of Congress, the Office of Education, and specialized agencies of the government are being asked for educational information, bibliographical materials, and kindred services by educational institutions, other governmental agencies, specialized scholars, and other interested parties. These inquiries cover the gamut of the specialized fields of the curriculum as well as professional education. Educational systems and approaches in foreign countries are of particular concern in recent years. The rich resources of the federal government in specialized staff and libraries should be available for this educational use.

The meager appropriations of the Office of Education library and the fact that the Library of Congress does not have an educational reference service, place limitations on each of these agencies in rendering the desired services to the educational institutions and scholars of the land. The spread of this specialized information throughout the government complicates the matter. It is needless that specialized staff or specialized library be duplicated at one point in order to render such service. It is equally needless, in the best interests of educational institutions and scholars,

to have unco-ordinated and apparently hidden resources not available to them. Thus we recommend a central clearinghouse to which such educational inquiries may be directed. This clearinghouse should be the best informed source within the government concerning governmental agencies, specialists, or libraries to which such inquiries should be directed. This function is well within the mission of the Office of Education to "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." Thus it is recommended that an educational reference service be established within the Office of Education, to act largely as a central clearinghouse to insure that educational inquiries will be directed to the one or more agencies, libraries, and individuals in the government which have the best available expertness in respect thereto.

## III. Services

To enumerate the various researches, consultant services, calls for assistance from local, state, and federal agencies, and other activities of the Office of Education would present a rather extensive array illustrative of the services rendered by it. This, however, is not essential to this report, which must concern itself more with federal policy and organization in total rather than merely that relatively small portion which is involved with the U.S. Office of Education. Our concern is more with the federal educational agency as it should be within the total structure of government than with it as it is and has been in its relatively submerged role within the government. However, a limited listing of publications and related activities will provide a brief overview of its activities in the fields of research and diffusing of information.

During the fiscal years 1947 and 1948, the following were its major publications:

*Education in Ecuador*
*Education in El Salvador*
*Camping and Outdoor Experiences in the School Program*

*Schools for Children Under Six*
*Education in Nicaragua*
*Education in Guatemala*
*Schools Count in Country Life*
*School and Work Programs*
*Education in Dominican Republics*
*School Transportation—Insurance*
*Cooperative Planning—A Key to Improved Organization of Small High Schools*
1947 *Annual Report*
*School Life*—10 issues in 1947 and 9 issues in 1948
*Teaching as a Career*
*Public Library Statistics*
*State Administration of School Health-Physical Education and Recreation*
*Statistics of Land-grant Colleges and Universities for Year Ending June 30, 1946*
*Educational Directory Part II 1947–48*
*Educational Directory Part III 1946–47*
*School Fire Drills*
*Lighting Schoolrooms*
*Financing Public Education*
*FM for Education*
*Higher Education*—18 issues each year

Between 1940 and 1944 inclusive, the Office issued 291 bulletins, leaflets, and pamphlets; 22 issues of the periodical *School Life* (plus 59 reprinted articles); and 24 issues of the periodical *Education for Victory* (plus 23 reprinted articles). From 1945 to May, 1948, its publications are indicated by Table 39 on the opposite page.

Even though many publications on a large variety of educational subjects which have been printed in previous years are still available, the Office reports the following as examples of subjects for which there is considerable demand, but for which publications are not available: history of education; crime prevention;

TABLE 39. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION, 1945–1948

| Item | 1945 | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 (to May) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bulletins, leaflets, pamphlets | 40 | 39 | 38 | 22 |
| Issues of *School Life* ..... | — | 10 * | 10 * | 9 |
| Issues of *Education for Victory* ..... | 12 | 6 (reprints) | — | — |
| Issues of *Higher Education* | 18 | 18 * | 18 * | 18 |
| Total publications distributed ..... | 70 | 73 * | 66 * | 49 |
| Total copies of publications distributed ..... | 343,579 | 444,874 | 396,505 | 385,771 |

* Plus reprinted articles.

safety and accident prevention; remedial reading; hobbies; music education; art education; research bibliographies (more recent than 1941); and school buildings.

Although a review of the titles of publications during the past two years leads one to the opinion that they are worth while, one gains the impression that the purpose to "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country" has been emphasized to the point of excluding much that might have been done in "collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories." To be sure, the biennial statistical survey publication was in process of compilation during this two-year period, for publication later in 1948. It is believed that the promotion of the cause of education would be furthered more generally, and without undue fear of federal domination of the purpose of education in the states, if more publications of a basic research nature were made available. State and local school systems are now greatly concerned with such problems as the proper organization of state departments of education, state and local tax systems for the support of education, equitable methods of distributing state school funds, the teacher shortage, more democratic internal administration of schools, population trends as they concern education and schools, and the re-

districting of school administrative areas. No recent comprehensive research publications are available from the Office in these major and critical fields. Timely summaries of previous researches and current basic research on conditions of the various states in respect to these and kindred problems would prove invaluable to many of the states.

It is primarily through greater strength in education and more capable administration at the state and local level that we can avoid or reduce federal controls in education. For instance, as long as there are states incapable of proper insight and organization in respect to their programs of vocational education, it is essential that rather tight federal controls be maintained over that program if we are to have any assurance that federal moneys in support of this program are to be utilized for the purpose for which intended by Congress. When states fail to provide adequate and essential educational programs and facilities, the natural tendency is to look to the federal government. More effort by the Office to provide the research information and subsequent consultant service and leadership which will make education generally stronger and more effective at the state level is basic to our whole concept of the place of education in American life. The large and fundamental problems concerned with this consideration should be given more emphasis. In this case the federal interest is served best by a greater concern for state and local strength.

Of the titles of publications during the past two years, five were devoted to education in other countries, while no publication generally gives facts regarding "the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories." Publications such as *Cooperative Planning—A Key to Improved Organization of Small High Schools, Teaching as a Career,* or *FM in Education,* although worthy, are more promotional than research in their nature. We believe that it is more fundamental for the Office of Education to do comprehensive basic research in these areas. If the facts disclose some definite needs which can be generally recognized as needs by the states, the Office may well enter the phase of pro-

moting the cause. The Office should be a rich reservoir of current and important factual data, collected from an impartial research point of view, and pertaining to the very real problems which confront educational systems and institutions in the states. These then should be made available to the public in general for major use in promotion of causes in education as individuals and groups outside the Office may desire.

It will have been noted above that requests have come to the Office for unavailable publications in several curricular fields. The final development of curriculum is definitely not a federal function. This does not preclude federal service to the states, however, in publication of basic research or summaries of research concerning specific areas of the curriculum. For instance, textbooks or teachers' manuals relative to reading should not be developed by the Office. There is, however, much research in this field which may not be generally available to state and local school authorities or to interested organizations or individuals. The Office may well make these available. Actual classroom methods which by research standards indicate unusual progress of students in reading may be described. But any such materials should be to assist others in developing their own programs. Such influence as the Office gives to the purpose and content of education should primarily be by impartial research fact and description.

The most effective ways by which the Office can perform its research, leadership, and service functions are through publications and field contacts by members of its staff. In 1946 the appropriations for publications were practically the same as for 1925 although the purchasing power was much less in 1946. A glance at Table 38 will indicate that the amount for travel in 1930 was $79,534 and in 1948 was $91,500. The larger amounts for 1945, 1946, and 1947 were primarily due to war and immediate post-war special activities. Between 1935 and 1948 the professional staff of the Office, that staff which should be turning out research for publication to diffuse information and be traveling throughout the country to "otherwise promote the cause of edu-

cation," was doubled. It would seem penny wise and pound foolish to increase the professional personnel of the Office, both in quantity and in quality, and at the same time deny the most potent means by which it can accomplish its mission.

A number of instances have been noted in which specialists of the Office have been desired for consultant services on important educational projects or problems in the states, but such services were not available due to lack of travel funds, unless paid for from local sources. In the wealthier localities we would not complain. However, the inevitable trend then is to utilize the services of specialists in the wealthier areas of the country and those closest to the national capital. Poorer areas and those further removed from Washington are in effect denied services which should be extended to all alike. The services then may be denied to those who need them most. Reference is made to Appendix B for more detailed information on this subject.

The effect on the personnel of the Office of too small appropriations for publications and travel should also be considered. From time to time the complaint has been made that staff members of the Office have been involved in too much busy work and administrative trivia. We doubt whether this complaint has a foundation in fact. However, we should be surprised if this were not the case when undue limitations are made upon the professional staff in respect to publications and field contacts. There is little incentive to do important research when its chances of subsequent publication and broad utilization are slight. There cannot be a wholehearted interest in the very real problems of education in the states unless one has a chance to work with these problems where they exist. There cannot be a zeal for leadership when the means for exerting that leadership are curtailed. If one had to make a choice between added staff and added wherewithal to make a more limited staff effective in accomplishing its major mission, the latter might seem to be the better choice. Of course, the obligation always rests upon an agency to assure that the limited funds available for its publications and travel are used to the very best advantage in the promotion of its mission. It

is recommended that serious consideration be given to more budget for publications and travel for the Office of Education so that it may accomplish its mission more effectively, better serve the less wealthy and more removed schools of the country, and utilize its staff to better advantage.

In Section I of this chapter, a number of operational programs for which the Office has responsibility were mentioned. To these should be added a number of other operational programs of assistance to agencies of the federal government in the conduct of their programs. Illustrative are three activities in 1948, and continuing for two years, whereby the educational "know-how" of the Office is used by the Air Force, the Navy, and the Public Health Service. The Air Force has transferred $25,000 to the Office for a survey of training personnel and instructional program of the Air Training Command. The Navy has transferred $30,000 for an evaluation of audio-visual aids used in its training program. The Office has received $40,000 from the Public Health Service to assist in the procurement of visual aids for mental health activities of the Service. Another case in point is the exchange of students program operated by the Office of Education with funds transferred from the Department of State.

It would seem entirely unnecessary and, moreover, undesirable for each "non-educational" department or agency of the government to duplicate professional educational staff and facilities. Thus it is believed that there should be more utilization of the Office of Education by other government agencies for services similar to those mentioned immediately above. While the "non-educational" agencies have the subject specialists, the Office has the specialists in organization and methods of instruction, and devices which can make instruction effective. The Office also should be the best informed agency in the government for knowing the potentialities of the schools and colleges of the country for various activities which other agencies may wish to undertake in connection with these schools and colleges. However, all too often "non-educational" agencies attempt to deal with educational programs in a manner which entirely side-tracks the

U.S. Office of Education. Two minor instances will be illustrative.

In May of 1948 the Federal Security Administrator convened the National Health Assembly in Washington. The Office was not consulted in planning the activities. The sub-committee which drew up plans and recommendations for a school health program had on it no representation from the Office nor a spokesman for the schools of the country at large. In June of 1948 at Washington the CAA held a conference of school administrators and teachers from various parts of the country on the subject of aviation in the curriculum. The CAA utilized the services of a non-governmental organization in developing the conference, with practically no co-ordination with the Office of Education. It is just in such projects as these that the Office can be of great assistance in planning and co-ordination. Only through such means is it possible to have any semblance of orderly approach on the federal level to the problems of the regularly constituted schools of the country.

Actually, then, the Office of Education has been to some extent, and may become to a greater extent, a service department in professional education for the other agencies of the government. This function is a far cry from the historic mission of the Office. Is this desirable? The answer to this question must be qualified. It would be undesirable if it were to diminish the zeal of the Office for its primary historic mission. On the other hand, it is highly undesirable to have unwarranted spread of professional educational functions, staff, and facilities throughout the government. Too prevalent failure in the past of "non-educational" agencies to utilize the Office as a major source for professional service may have been a partial reason for the widespread dispersion of federal educational functions as they concern elementary, secondary, and higher education. If, in its internal organizational structure, the Office is equipped specifically to render assistance to other governmental agencies it is believed that considerable of the current confusion could be eliminated.

In many cases it will be necessary and probably desirable for

"non-educational" agencies to continue their direct contact with the higher institutions of the land. Certainly there should be one agency in the government, however, where information about these institutions could be available and where there could be enlightened advice relative to methods of contact and means by which maximum protection may be given both to governmental agencies and higher institutions. In the past, the Office has rendered some service of this type. The point is that a policy should be adopted within both the legislative and executive branches of the government to insure that such will be general and consistent rather than sporadic. It is believed that proper internal organization of the Office can make it possible for this type of service to exist without diminution of the primary historic function of service to education in and through the states.

Thus it will be noted that, in general, the services of the U.S. Office of Education may be grouped into three categories. First, there is the historical function, specified by Congress when the Office was initiated in 1867. This involves the collection of statistics and facts to show the condition and progress of education, the diffusing of information to aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promoting the cause of education throughout the country. This must be maintained as the primary function of the Office.

Second, the Office has become an operating or administering agency of the government through a number of programs for which the Congress has given it responsibility. This function involves such activities as the administration of grants for vocational education and for land grant colleges. Except for the Division of Central Services, which has among other things responsibility for internal office "housekeeping," the Division of Vocational Education is the largest in the Office of Education. The Division of Vocational Education has far more personnel than any of the divisions of the Office which are concerned with the first (historic) function of the Office as described above. Emphatically, this comparison is not for the purpose of deprecating the Division of Vocational Education nor the services it renders. It

is only for the purpose of illustrating that operations and the administrative detail involved therewith often tend to overshadow the more important, though less tangible, functions of general research service to the regularly constituted schools of the country. Probably there has been a tendency for operational programs to diminish the effectiveness of the Office in its primary historic mission. There are three possible solutions: reduction of administrative detail by giving more administrative responsibility to states; removing operational programs from the Office; better organization of the Office to balance services and to dissociate, as far as possible, operations and accompanying administrative detail from the more general research leadership and service functions. The first solution has possibilities which will be explored later in this report. The second solution is discarded as it would multiply the chaotic spread of educational functions throughout the government. The third solution seems most significant in its possibilities of maintaining balance in the services rendered by the Office. If the federal situation relative to education as it concerns the regularly constituted schools of the country is to become less chaotic it is essential that the federal educational agency be given more rather than less responsibility for the administration of operational programs.

Third, the Office has become to a small degree a professional servicing agency for other departments and agencies of the government. For reasons presented above, this should continue and expand. The important thing is that this rather new function should be done in such manner, and internal organization of the Office be so effected, that this will not interfere with its historic function.

Properly guarded, these two newer functions of the Office can be used to add strength to its primary function of educational service to the states and the educational institutions therein. Operations can enhance leadership, service, and research. Professional educational service to other agencies of the government should involve the well-being of the regularly constituted educational systems and institutions in the states. Over the years

the Office of Education has been more aware that determination of educational purposes should be retained by states and higher institutions than have most other agencies of the government. It is believed that its influence, both in operations and in professional assistance to other governmental agencies, will be a safeguard against unwarranted authoritarian educational activities in the federal government. The subtle encroachment on state and institutional initiative through a widespread, chaotic, and uncoordinated dispersion of educational activities operating through or affecting educational institutions in the states is considered much more dangerous than an orderly development which makes for greater utilization of the federal agency which has traditionally championed the rights of states and institutions to determine their own educational programs. The development of a balanced education locally planned and administered is of greater concern to the Office of Education than to any other federal agency. It must be afforded a greater opportunity to exert its influence in this direction unless we would face an increasing tendency toward federal domination of education.

Thus it will be seen that our major problem is concerned with placing the federal educational agency in the government at such a position that it will be of maximum service to the schools of the nation and to the other federal agencies. Every safeguard must be provided to prevent it from becoming a tool for an authoritarian or partisan domination of education in the country.

## IV. Frustration

If we were to set out deliberately to frustrate the Office of Education and its personnel we would follow a number of the practices which have been evident in federal policy or lack thereof. We would first disperse important activities which concern elementary—secondary and higher education, with particular reference to the first, in as many places as possible over the government. We would see to it that the Office had a very minor role in the total of these activities and that it had nothing to do

with many of the more important specific activities. The degree to which we have achieved this frustration goal is witnessed by a few facts.

In 1949 federal funds which went to schools and higher institutions in states and students therein, for the operation or support of elementary and secondary schools, and for federal administration of these programs, five departments of the government exceed the Office of Education. The Veterans Administration had over 70 times more funds for these purposes, the Department of Agriculture more than 4 times as much, the Atomic Energy Commission almost 3 times as much, and the Army and the Navy both exceeded the Office of Education by over nine and three millions of dollars respectively. The Department of Agriculture alone in its school lunch program for elementary and secondary schools in the states had more than two and one-half times more funds in 1949 than the entire funds available to or through the Office of Education. Sixteen federal departments and independent agencies through many more of their sub-agencies conducted programs dealing with elementary or secondary education. Nineteen departments and independent agencies through scores of their sub-agencies had programs which concerned higher education. Funds available to the Office of Education (for both administration and grants) for 1949 were about one per cent of total federal funds for that year which were identified as educational in nature.

Secondly, we would place the Office of Education in a relatively submerged place in the governmental structure in such a manner that fear of partisan approach in its activities would prevent it from being very effective in accomplishing its missions or in becoming an integrating or co-ordinating force in the educational activities of the government. We would do our best to violate administrative principles generally agreed to be desirable on the state and local level by which education is kept close to the will of the people through a lay board which selects its executive to carry out its policies. How well have we achieved this type of frustration? The Commissioner of Education is

appointed by the President with confirmation of the Senate. Except as the Congress, the President, or the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency (also appointed by the President) directs his activities he can be an autocrat. If scheming politicians desired to use education on the federal level as a tool to work on the minds of the citizenry towards a partisan end we would use somewhat the type of federal organization which we have today. That the Office of Education has avoided such an approach is a credit to the integrity of its leadership. Submerged and lacking in status it would be most unlikely that the Office could be an effective integrating or correlating force for the educational activities of stronger and more aggressive agencies of the government. The fear that the Office might be used for partisan ends negates confidence in it, and is used as an argument against giving it functions which are within its proper sphere of activities. At the one governmental level where we fear educational domination most we fail to develop safeguards to keep education close to the will of the people. We have taken the alternative step of spreading uncorrelated educational functions over the government in the false belief that thereby we avoid federal controls.

Thirdly, and associated with what has been said above, we would make the position of Commissioner of Education so unenticing that it would be only by unusual good fortune that the position would draw the high type of leadership demanded. Have we succeeded in this? In cities of over 100,000 population half of the superintendents of schools received salaries equal to or exceeding that of the Commissioner of Education in 1946–47. At least 19 superintendents of schools in cities from 30,000 to 100,000 in population received equal or better salaries. Dozens of assistants to city superintendents of schools equal or exceed his salary.[5] A substantial majority of university presidents in institutions of over 5,000 enrollment received more salary in

[5] These data based on compilations in *Special Salary Tabulations I–B*, Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1947, p. 1, and in *Special Salary Tabulations II–B*, pp. 1–2.

1947–48 than did the Commissioner of Education. If the position were enticing in other matters the fiscal consideration would be less important. However, the Commissioner is in a position which is contrary in its organizational aspects to that which is considered good educational practice on either the state or local level, and the Office for which he is responsible is only a gesture as compared with the total educational activities of the federal government. He is asked to assume federal leadership in education while 99 per cent of the federal educational program is outside his sphere of influence.

Added to these situations are a number, some of them inherent in government, which combine to give further frustration to the Office and its personnel. The budgetary situation for travel and publications as related to the performance of the major mission of the Office has been treated in the previous section of this chapter. Playing politics with the internal operations of the Office is a potential and current danger. Our tradition in education is violated when this can occur. The Office finds itself in an incompatible position in trying to perform its mission through nonpartisan service when the chain of command above it may be more concerned with political considerations and the amassing of power.

Before we can make constructive suggestions to correct these situations it is necessary to consider the effect of the educational activities of the federal government on the regularly constituted schools, colleges, and universities in the states. This will be treated in the next three chapters.

# *Chapter 11.* HISTORICAL EFFECT OF FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES ON EDUCATION IN THE STATES

We have emphasized and re-emphasized in this report that basically the control of education is a function of the state. That the federal interest and concern is closely associated with the effectiveness of education in the states must be re-affirmed. Only through a highly literate and informed citizenry can our form of popular government exist and grow more effective. The welfare of the individual and of society is involved. Strength of education in the states is a matter of great federal import. Centralized or authoritarian federal control of education is antagonistic to our form of democracy. Thus, the major criterion for evaluation of those federal educational activities which concern the regularly constituted schools of the country must be in terms of the effect on education in the states. If these federal activities have strengthened initiative and the responsibility for education in the states they are good. If they have tended to diminish initiative and responsibility of states they are undesirable and should be modified. This chapter and the two which follow will attempt a brief evaluation of federal educational policy and organization as it concerns the effectiveness of education in the states.

It is significant that most major moves of the federal government in the past to support or encourage some specific type of education have been at times when there was a country-wide lack of sensitiveness to an urgent educational need. Education easily falls into the habits of the past, though changing social and economic conditions demand an alertness to current conditions and changing trends in American life. In spite of the fact that educa-

tion has always had certain leaders who have insisted that its major function was to convey the "culture" of the past to the current generation, it is essential, especially in our form of government and our dynamic society, that education conceive of "culture" as something we live today and project into tomorrow. We would not deny the importance of the past. We merely indicate that it is not enough to deal only with the past to the exclusion of the realities of the present. In a sense, federal participation in education throughout our history has been a healthy urge to make education meet essential needs in our society which have been resisted by the rank and file of those who control education and educational institutions. While there have often been justified differences of opinion relative to the means used, the purpose has usually been recognized as justified. In effect, federal promotion and support of education has been aimed largely at social lag in institutionalized education.

At the beginning of our national life publicly supported education was either meager or practically non-existent in most states. Education was largely available to select groups and through private schools, either church or proprietary. For effective participation in the democratic life of our new republic it was deemed essential that education be extended to the general populace—a concept that was relatively new in the world of that day. The insistence by the federal government on provisions for general education in the territories and the subsequent generous endowment of education through land grants to the new states were definite acts to promote a new and needed program to which the society of the day had been resistent. In effect, these provisions were a protest by the federal government against the all too prevalent notion and practice that basic education was to be available only to the select few.

Similarly, the Morrill Act of 1862 was a protest against the then too current practice of limiting higher education to a select few and in studies usually unrelated to the social and individual needs of a growing scientific, agricultural, and industrial nation. To use the words of Mr. Morrill,

The fundamental idea was to offer an opportunity in every State for a liberal and larger education to large numbers, not merely to those destined to sedentary professions, but to those much needing higher instruction for the world's business, for industrial pursuits and professions of life.[6]

From this and other statements of Mr. Morrill, as well as from the text of the legislation, it is apparent that the creation of the land grant colleges had three purposes:

1. A protest against the then characteristic dominance of the classics in higher education.
2. A desire to develop, at the college level, instruction relating to the practical activities of life.
3. An attempt to offer to those belonging to the industrial classes preparation for the "professions of life."

The emphasis in the legislation was on the class or group from which students came, rather than one towards which they were headed. The land-grant institutions were meant to be colleges for those from the industrial groups. The clear intent was that they should provide liberal and technical, including professional, preparation at the college level for the large middle class. These institutions represented a protest against the classical type of institution, which in that day offered virtually the only higher education available in the United States, and which, in general, served the leisure class and the professions as distinguished from the rank and file . . . the land-grant colleges have undoubtedly been potential factors in the democratization of higher education.[7]

Thus we see in this act a promotion of a socially desirable end which the institutionalized education of the country had, in large measure, failed to recognize; a protest, implemented by the federal government, against formalized higher education as it then existed.

The encouragement of agricultural experiment stations in the

[6] Justin S. Morrill, *An Address in Behalf of the University of Vermont and State Agricultural College*, Burlington, Vt., Free Press Association, 1888.

[7] The Advisory Committee on Education, *The Land Grant Colleges*, Staff Study No. 10, Washington, D.C., U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1939, p. 11.

land grant colleges by the Hatch Act of 1887 was in response to the unmet needs of the rapidly expanding agriculture of the nation. The hit-or-miss rule-of-thumb methods of agriculture needed to give way to scientific agriculture. The decreasing acre yield of crops in older areas was becoming apparent, as well as the need for development of new and better crops suited to our increasing land usage. What had been considered the isolated problem of the individual farmer was fast becoming a problem of social and economic import to the country at large. One of the early teachers at Iowa State College of Agriculture, Professor Roberts, had aptly said, ". . . I began to tell my students what I knew about farming. It did not take me long to run short of material and then I began to consult the library. I might as well have looked for cranberries on the Rocky Mountains as for material for teaching agriculture in that library." [8]

Although the Hatch Act does not represent the degree of protest against institutionalized education as is evident in the Morrill Act, it does indicate a sensitiveness on the part of the federal government to a very realistic need.

The development of the agricultural extension service by the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 was an added federal response in furthering a need which had previously been recognized in the Hatch Act of 1887. To a considerable degree the agricultural experiment work was "cloistered" in the land grant colleges. In order to become effective it had to get out to the "grass roots" of the farms. In a sense the federal encouragement of the agricultural extension service was a protest against the tendency to formalize research findings in the field of agriculture. It was a distinct move on the part of the federal government, in co-operation with the states, to become realistic in respect to the problem of agricultural education for the masses on the farms.

What has been said about the Morrill Act of 1862 as a protest against the too formal higher education of that day can similarly be said to a considerable extent of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917

[8] Isaac P. Roberts, *Autobiography of a Farm Boy*, J. B. Lyon Company, Albany, 1916, p. 160.

for the development of the nation's secondary schools. This institution was developed initially to prepare youth for entrance into colleges and universities. Originally attended by a select few, during the late 19th century and early part of the 20th century it rapidly became a school for the masses. The phenomenal growth of this institution in American life, and its subsequent need to change its program of studies and its methods has been one of the major concerns of educators of our day. The social lag of this institution, in permitting its earlier purpose to dominate its program, had resulted in much discussion among both educators and laymen, but the resulting change had been a disappointment to many. What only a few secondary schools were willing or able to do by their own initiative was spread to many schools by the co-operative promotion of vocational education directly traceable to the Smith-Hughes program. There is considerable evidence that the vocational education program sponsored by the Smith-Hughes Act was a protest against academic formalism in the secondary schools of the nation. That the somewhat rigid nature of the prescribed vocational program makes it difficult to extend it to many of the secondary schools, particularly smaller schools, and that it sometimes tends to segregate the "vocational" from the "academic" pupils, thus not meeting a balanced need of the majority of pupils, is still a matter of concern to those interested in the proper balanced development of secondary education.

There are those students of the problem who believe that the CCC and the development of special schools under the NYA are similar indications that our secondary and higher institutions of learning have so formalized themselves that they fail to meet the needs of a substantial portion of our youth population. These students saw in these depression emergency institutions a symptom of social rebellion against institutions which wish to remain "respectable" in their academic tradition, unrealistic in respect to the actual needs of youth in a changing social, economic, and technical day.

Programs of education recently initiated by the federal government are more difficult to interpret in terms of their purposive

significance to education in the states. The school lunch program initiated to furnish a worthy outlet for surplus foods and to furnish work relief to the unemployed, has recently given more emphasis to the factor of physical well-being of children. As such it has met a need which has not been properly cared for by state and local agencies in many localities. Its brief history, however, leads one to doubt whether it has been motivated primarily by a federal desire to overcome malnutrition among children.

The very recent extensive use of the higher institutions of the land for federally sponsored research projects might be interpreted as an encouragement to these institutions to meet the current and expanding scientific needs of the country in more effective manner. It is difficult to impute motive and purpose when considerable of this activity is involved with the national defense.

The schools of the country have sometimes been laggard in using modern motivating implementation in the teaching of the usual subjects of the curriculum. Certainly the activities of the CAA and of the Treasury Department in promoting the introduction of live and timely implementation in the curricula is a help to such schools as may have been laggard in this regard. These, however, should be classified more as an effort to promote a cause than as federal assistance to overcome a social lag in the schools.

It will not serve the purposes of this report to attempt further determination of purpose for each federal activity which concerns the regularly constituted schools of the nation. Suffice it to say that, in general, the older forms of assistance to education by the federal government have been definite encouragement to promote much-needed educational activities and reform which the states either did not or which they thought they could not do for themselves. The early land grants for the support of "common schools" were the backbone for development of our state public school systems. This is the only genuinely general support which has been given to public schools. To a large extent this federal program was the basis for the development of initiative and responsibility for public education in states. It was in line with good public policy.

The land and money grants to land grant colleges, the experiment stations, the agricultural extension service, and the federal support for vocational education all injected, to a greater or lesser degree, a federally preconceived curricular or subject-area purpose into education in the states. The states did not have to accept these programs, though all of them did. The initiative for program operation was given to the states. The land grant colleges have been an outstanding example of federal promotion of state leadership and initiative. The very large local support as compared with the relatively small present federal assistance is witness to this fact. Although these programs have all promoted a definite and specific purpose in education—a purpose which under complete state and local initiative had too often been lacking—it cannot be said that it was either contrary to state interests or good federal policy for the government to undertake these projects. They have had an excellent over-all good effect on education. We have demonstrated through these programs that the federal government can promote specific causes in the field of education whereby initiative and responsibility can be properly retained by the states. In respect to these programs, our problem is primarily one of balancing the federal concern that funds be used to promote the purposes for which intended with that of maximum development of initiative and leadership on the state and local level. Too great stress on the former can negate the latter. The development of more initiative and leadership on the state and local level is the best long-range insurance that federal funds will be used for the purposes for which they are intended. It is also good social policy, particularly in our form of government.

The educational programs of the CCC and NYA are in a different classification. In spite of long recognition of the growing gap between time of leaving formal education and of entering employment, and of much discussion of the need for work-related experiences in education and education-related experiences in work, the rank and file of schools and colleges of the country have preferred to remain close in their rather narrow groove of formal-

ized education for the more academically receptive youth. To be sure, some few schools and colleges have deviated from the usual pattern, but they are exceptions. So, with the coming of the depression the federal government undertook its own program for these youth. The CCC, conceived to use unemployed youth in conservation of our natural resources, soon became an educational institution. The NYA ultimately established a federal system of vocational schools paralleling the regular vocational schools of the country. We believe, as fine as these institutions were in meeting the problems involved in a very direct manner, that greater strength would result to the total educational program of the country if, in the future, the regularly constituted institutions of the country would be encouraged and challenged to meet such problems. The educational, social, and economic problems which brought the CCC and the NYA into being still exist, though somewhat more dormant in good economic times. Many schools still go their way of relative unawareness to the problem. Because the federal government undertook these programs by itself, there is little residue of leadership at the state and local levels by which the good features of these programs can be used to supplement or influence existing programs. The federal paternalistic approach has negated probabilities of state leadership and responsibility to make the needed reforms. The federal government has effectively promoted other rather revolutionary changes in education which have had lasting effect when it has encouraged the states to take initiative and responsibility. We believe the latter to be the best long-range approach.

Historically, then, we find that the federal government has promoted a number of worthy changes in state and higher institutional educational programs. To the degree that these have encouraged state and local initiative and leadership they have been well within our concept of the place of the federal government in education. To as great a degree as is possible, consistent with the federal necessity of ascertaining that funds are used for the purposes for which they have been designated, responsibility for federally promoted programs should be decentralized to state and

local educational authorities. The more general the purpose of federal funds, the greater the amount of leadership and initiative that can be given to the local educational agencies.

It becomes clear that the federal educational interest is much concerned with strong educational leadership in states. As long as we have professionally weak state departments of education it will be necessary to exercise more federal supervision in our programs for public schools than we think desirable. More federal supervision means more of the tendency to use bureaucratic types of organization and control. We must search for more effective ways of eliminating this vicious circle. A higher type of federal leadership and promotion to encourage states to assume more responsibility and leadership is desirable if we would correct this situation. Some further considerations in this connection will be treated in the next two chapters.

# *Chapter 12.* PRESENT EFFECT OF FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES ON ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

We wish that each state had one strong over-all planning and administering agency for all of its schools, from kindergarten through graduate schools. Such an organization would simplify the development of criteria for educational activities of the federal government as they affect the regularly constituted schools and colleges in the states. Many direct dealings with schools and higher institutions could be eliminated. Much of the now necessary specificity of present assistance to states could be removed. The number of educational agencies within states through which federal agencies deal could be reduced. Planning with states regarding their total educational needs could be facilitated.

Although such a state educational organization may be a goal for future attainment, a realistic approach must recognize that, although all but nine of our states now have state boards of education directing the responsibilities of the public schools, seldom do these boards have any over-all responsibility for higher education as well. Due to this, we find it necessary to treat the problem of elementary and secondary schools in a different manner than we treat higher institutions. The latter will be discussed in Chapter 13.

The status of state departments of education, responsible for public schools, may be noted from a few statistics. In 31 states members of the state board of education are appointed by the governor, sometimes with senate consent. Other boards are elected, ex officio, or a combination of these. Qualifications for

board members are surprisingly low. Sixteen states mention no qualifications. Four require residence only. Only three states have any educational requirement for membership, although in actual practice a substantial majority of members do have education beyond secondary school. All states have a chief state school officer either by constitution or by statute. College requirements are stated for this official in 11 states. In five states he must hold the highest grade educational certificate required in the state. Educational experience is required in nine states. No qualifications are mentioned in thirteen states. The state board or the governor specify the requirements in six states. In 31 states this official is elected, in eight he is appointed by the state board, the governor appoints in eight states, and in one state the governor and the state board jointly appoint this chief state school officer. His term of office varies from one year to four years or for an indefinite period. The median salary for this office is $5,000. In only 16 states do professional staff members in the department of education have tenure. Staffs vary in size from one employee to each 1,219 school-age children in Delaware to 22,523 in Kansas. There is often divided responsibility with other boards or with other state officials in matters which concern the conduct or administration of the public schools.[1]

What is the effect of federal educational activities upon the regularly constituted elementary and secondary schools of the country?

## I. By-passing of State Departments of Education

While we recognize that a strong state department of education is essential, various federal agencies have been guilty of weakening potentialities for this strength by direct dealing with public schools and school systems within states. In other cases federal activities in education or closely related thereto have been di-

[1] *Responsibility of the States in Education: The Fourth R*, Committee on Education, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, April 1947, pp. 12, 22, 26, 32, 40.

rected through state groups other than the state boards of education. While the U.S. Office of Education has traditionally carried on its activities through its counterpart in the states, the state boards and/or departments of education, it is only natural when "non-educational" federal agencies are involved that they tend to operate through their "non-educational" counterparts on the state level. The dispersion of educational activities in the federal government has tended to encourage similar and even more undesirable dispersion at the state operational level. In those cases where co-ordination is desirable, as for instance between state educational and health agencies in developing a school program in health, certainly that co-ordination should start on the federal level.

The by-passing of the state educational agencies in direct dealings between federal agencies and local schools and communities on educational matters became rather rife during the depression. The WPA established nursery schools with little or no prior clearance with state educational agencies. Instead of making funds available to the states for establishment and operation the nursery schools were operated directly by the federal agency. Similarly, WPA funds were used for various types of adult education, but seldom through state educational agencies. The NYA, as related above, similarly by-passed state departments of education. The PWA particularly in its earlier years of operation ignored state educational agencies in setting up school building construction projects. As a result, situations occurred where buildings were more elaborate than needed, and where buildings were not placed in locations of greatest need.

The Lanham Act assistance to schools for buildings, maintenance, and operation similarly by-passed state departments of education in dealing directly with local schools and communities particularly in its earlier years. No really satisfactory arrangement for co-ordination with the U.S. Office of Education or with state departments of education was ever worked out. Engineers in a "non-educational" federal agency were all too often attempting to determine school needs and procedures. In reviewing the

program in 1943 one writer concluded that, "The entire situation could hardly have been more absurd." [2]

The Department of Agriculture has had to learn the hard way that its school lunch program should operate through state departments of education. Its earlier direct dealings with school systems in local communities, and even with individual schools within school systems have given way more recently to primary dealings through state departments of education. Much damage had been done to the prestige and resultant strength of state departments of education in the meantime. Some state departments of education have subsequently found it difficult to assume the sudden increased load of administration, making it necessary for the Department of Agriculture to make many audits in local communities.

The citizenship training program of the Immigration Service, Department of Justice, has worked both with state and local school systems. Essentially this is a part of the adult education program which should be sponsored and planned at the state level. By dealing directly with local schools we chisel away the basis for development of initiative and leadership in state departments of education. The CAA program for promotion of aviation education and Treasury Department program for school savings and thrift education have usually worked through state departments of education, thus building strength where it belongs.

In the numerous programs for education of children on special federal properties and reservations we find a large variety of situations extending from complete arrangement with the state department of education as in the Atomic Energy Commission Hanford (Washington) project, to total neglect or by-passing of the state department of education in making arrangements or failing to make arrangements with local school districts. The failure of the federal government to have a comprehensive policy in respect to this problem has been an embarrassment to many state departments of education. Direct dealings with school districts have

[2] Edgar L. Morphet, "We Have Federal Control of Education," *American School Board Journal*, July 1943, Bruce Publishing Co., Milwaukee.

not enhanced the leadership or initiative of state educational agencies. What has been said of this problem applies to some extent to the Indian Service of the Department of the Interior. However, the recent policy of this agency to make an increasing number of contracts with state departments of education is significant. It should be noted, however, that the Indian Service made contracts with over 1,100 individual school districts in 1947. A comprehensive federal policy in these regards is needed, with increasing recognition of the state educational agencies through which over-all planning and assistance should be carried out.

The labor apprenticeship program of the Department of Labor promotes agreements for apprentice training with too little regard for state or local educational agencies in spite of the fact that the subsequent apprentice program is supposed to utilize vocational school facilities. It is believed that all parties concerned would be benefited if this program were geared so that it could not completely by-pass the state departments of education.

Non-educational agencies of the federal government, when given educational responsibilities which concern the regular elementary and secondary schools of the country, practically always tend to by-pass state educational agencies. Particularly is this likely to be true in the initial stages of their operations until pressures can be brought on them to do otherwise. Often these agencies have been accustomed to direct operations and they do not realize the tradition as well as basic philosophy and Constitution which differentiate education from other fields of activity in this respect. Some of the most unwarranted federal controls of education in the states have crept in by this means. These activities have raised fears of federal domination in education. But, most important, they have discouraged rather than encouraged the assumption of educational leadership and initiative by state educational agencies.

It must not be assumed that the federal government is necessarily the culprit in the matter. In many states the departments of education have been so inadequately set up either in administrative relationships, staffs, or support that they have been unable

to assume desired responsibilities. If a few states are unable to operate a federally sponsored program effectively, the tendency may be to by-pass all state departments in the interest of uniformity. This tends to reduce state educational initiative and responsibility. It is a vicious circle. States must realize that it is their initial responsibility to develop strength for educational leadership and initiative. The federal government may then do its part in reversing this vicious circle.

## II. Overlapping of Functions

In a sense, every situation cited in the sub-section above is an overlapping in that each involves a contact with schools on an educational matter. Also a number of the federal agencies are taking on functions which would better be left to state departments of education. Many of these state departments are equipped to handle the matters involved. Those which are not should be so equipped. If we would spend an equal energy and support to gain the needed strength in state departments of education, much of our problem would be solved. We have overlapping between functions performed by the federal government and those which should be performed by state departments of education.

At least fourteen departments or independent agencies of the government are currently operating programs which impinge upon state or local school systems in matters concerned with elementary or secondary education. Some of these departments or agencies have several sub-agencies each dealing with school matters. No wonder that the National Council of Chief State School Officers has complained of "piecemeal Federal encroachment,"[8] lack of federal policy in education and the consequent confusion in dealing with so many educational agencies.

Although each of the above agencies devotes itself to some special phase or problem in education, thus creating what might

[8] "National Council of Chief State School Officers, Reports from the Buffalo Meeting," *School Life*, April and May 1946.

be called administrative rather than functional overlapping, the latter exists as well. Long before the U.S. Department of Agriculture started its school lunch program the Office of Education was equipped with staff and had put out a number of publications for assistance to schools in developing the school lunch and nutrition activities. While thousands of schools now participate in the U.S. Department of Agriculture school lunch program, other thousands do not and naturally look to the U.S. Office of Education for assistance and advice. Both offices are interested in proper facilities for school lunch programs. Both are interested in proper diet and in school lunch administration. Even Congressmen, who had a part in placing the school lunch program in the U.S. Department of Agriculture, refer many of their requests for information concerning school lunches to the U.S. Office of Education! The natural confusion which results to states in seeking advice from federal sources is not good.

There is an increasing tendency for the program of the USDA extension service and that of the vocational education programs in agriculture and home economics sponsored by the Office of Education to overlap. Each has a youth program. Each is in the field of adult education. In 1928 a memorandum of understanding was developed which defined the areas of operation of each program and recommended joint committees at federal and state levels "to meet from time to time as may be necessary to promote mutual understanding."[4] As far as can be determined, no such meetings were ever held by the federal committee, although an effort was made to convene in 1948. We believe the approach of this memorandum to have been wrong, however. Rather than attempt to build fences between the two programs, it is our belief that each has much to contribute to the other. It would be better policy to locate means of making the two programs mutually supporting.

[4] *Memorandum of Understanding Relative to Smith-Hughes and Smith-Lever Relationships in Agriculture*, signed by representatives of U.S. Dept. of Agriculture and Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D.C., December 20, 1928, p. 7.

The 4–H Club program, sponsored by the USDA through its extension service and extending to the local communities by way of the land grant colleges, enrolls some 1,600,000 boys and girls. The club work of the Office of Education is closely associated with its vocational education programs in high schools. It operates at the state level through the state boards for vocational education. Its four clubs, enrolling over 500,000 youth, are Future Farmers of America (boys), Future Homemakers of America (girls), New Future Farmers of America (Negro boys), and New Future Homemakers of America (Negro girls). On the adult level the extension service operates through the county agents and home demonstrators, dealing with individuals or groups largely through demonstrations or more informal meetings. The vocational education program is more involved with formal class situations and associated individual farm or home projects. The vocational education program in agriculture operates in over 8,000 high schools and the Extension Service is in over 3,000 counties of the country.

In many localities there is harmonious and well-correlated relationship between these two federally supported programs in cooperation with states. In others there are repeated claims that rural youth enrolled in vocational classes are denied the privilege of joining 4–H Clubs even though different projects would be used in the supervised training under each program; that some county extension workers discourage 4–H Club members from enrolling in vocational classes; that vocational teachers sometimes sponsor and direct activities in their communities which are not definite parts of systematic classroom work, thus overlapping with extension workers; or that county extension workers conduct training schools for adults on an organized basis comparable to vocational training classes. All too often individuals responsible for these two closely related programs are not acquainted with each other and have never discussed their mutual problems. Although the agents, demonstrators, and teachers of these programs are largely the products of the land grant colleges, these two federally supported programs often compete for their services.

There are those who believe that the solution is to transfer the program in vocational agriculture from the U.S. Office of Education to the Department of Agriculture. With these we cannot agree, although it must be admitted that the Department of Agriculture seems to have been more successful in getting adequate federal support for its activities than has the Office of Education. If we were to make this transfer, we should then have to be consistent by transferring the trade and industrial vocational education to the Department of Labor, the vocational education in distributive occupations to the Department of Commerce, the vocational guidance program might go to the U.S. Employment Service, and probably the vocational education in homemaking would be transferred to another division of the Department of Agriculture. We thus multiply rather than diminish the number of non-educational agencies dealing with the schools in the states. We eliminate any semblance of over-all federal-state development in the promotion of vocational education. We create more overlapping in federal staff and services. We fail to recognize that basically these two programs have different philosophies and modes of operation. We may lose considerable of the drive and zeal developed through the loyalties to these separate programs. We further complicate administrative matters at the state level, as the USDA operates through the land grant colleges in its extension program and would probably prefer to operate vocational agriculture through the same state agency. We thus withdraw the program from the state departments of education, making the federal dereliction in weakening this state agency even more aggravated. The alternative of having the USDA deal through the state departments of education for this program multiplies the difficulties involved. We believe that the removal of the program in vocational agriculture from the federal educational agency would be detrimental to the best interests of education in the states. A similar suggestion that the agricultural extension service be transferred to the Office of Education has little to commend it for similar and other reasons.

Had the original plan, which seems to have been taken for

granted by those who were developing the idea of a federal agricultural extension service in 1911 (the program was established by Congress in 1914), gone into effect much of our current difficulties would be solved. This report of the Committee on Extension Work to the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations dated November 15–17, 1911, at Columbus, Ohio, (page 26) stated:

> Each agricultural high school or department of agriculture in a public high school will naturally develop as the extension center. To preserve its own vitality, it must live close to the community and the community problems, and do a large amount of extension work on its own responsibility. But your committee believes that the agricultural high school or agricultural department ought also to be a center for the extension service of the agricultural college, not primarily for the benefit of the college, but in order that the extension work of the school may be supplemented and enforced by that of the college. Almost inevitably the college will gather about itself the leading experts of the state. These men may not always know the local conditions so intimately as the faculty of the school may know them, but they are more likely to be expert in special lines than are members of the faculty of the local school. Therefore, the two enterprises must be correlated.

In Chapter 7 we outlined the plan of present co-ordination of the institutional on-farm program for veterans, wherein the same agencies that are involved with this problem appear to be working out an excellent co-ordinated activity. We see no reason why schools with their facilities in staff and equipment and extension service personnel with their excellent understanding of rural and farm problems could not co-ordinate for the mutual advantage of all. Certainly the rural high school, sometimes referred to as the most neglected unit in the American school system, could draw much from the problems of community and farm life to revitalize its educational experiences by such co-ordination. Kindred advantages should accrue to the extension service.

From the federal level there has been little incentive for such co-ordination. We suggest that co-ordinated planning at the federal, state, and local levels will do much to solve these problems.

Just because the bathwater is dirty we should not throw out the baby with the bath. Better dry the baby and get clean bathwater. Drying the baby involves finding the areas of mutual interest and co-ordination which can be of mutual benefit to the two programs. Getting clean bathwater involves implementation for continued co-ordination. We believe the plan recommended for co-ordinating apprenticeship training with vocational education at the close of Chapter 5 will be effective for this problem.

We have already pointed out that there is overlapping between federal agencies in programs to promote curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools of the states. The CAA in its program to promote aviation education overlaps to some degree with the promotion of vocational education through the U.S. Office of Education. While the Office of Education through its divisions of elementary and secondary education has an interest in serving schools in the states in general matters of curriculum and has a small staff to accomplish this purpose, programs in thrift education, aviation education, and citizenship education are promoted independently by the Treasury, Commerce, and Justice Departments respectively. Should it be necessary for schools in states to seek curricular service in these three special fields from non-educational agencies of the government, while dealing with the U.S. Office of Education in respect to curricular assistance in general? Is this a good procedure in encouraging the states to develop a well-rounded curriculum, with over-all planning to meet the needs of their youth? Does it strengthen initiative and responsibility in the states to have four federal agencies operating in the field of curriculum? We think the answer to these questions in the long run must be in the negative.

It is believed that the federal government should place basic responsibility in the federal educational agency for matters involving curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools of the country. This need not preclude much which might be of value in assistance from essentially non-educational agencies of the government, working through the Office of Education for over-all co-ordination.

The slight overlapping between the apprentice training program of the Department of Labor and the vocational education program of the Office of Education has been discussed in Chapter 5 together with suggestions for improvement of their relationship. Any difficulties which may be involved are more evident at the operational level in states and localities than on the federal level. It is believed that such confusion or conflict between these programs as exists in the states can be overcome by co-ordination to the mutual advantage of each. There is no reason to believe that they should be placed under a unified control at the federal level.

The overlapping between various educational functions of different agencies of the federal government has created a number of situations which are not in the best interests of education in the states. Divided authority on the federal level has sometimes been mirrored in similar divided authority on the state level. Failure to co-ordinate adequately at all levels has resulted in confusion and failure to reap all of the advantages at the operational level which might have been evident. We believe that these situations should be corrected both in the federal interest and in the state and local interest.

## III. Curricular Balance

While we agree that the federal government, particularly in historical retrospect, has been effective in the promotion of important special aspects of education which had often been neglected by states, we would also caution that the promotion of special aspects only may over the years have an undesirable effect upon balance of curricular emphasis. Education in the states must be based on our great need for a high and effective general and civic literacy. This is also in the federal interest. In 1949 we had $28,039,000 of federal money available to promote special aspects of curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools of the country at large, of which $27,128,000 was in grants to states for vocational education. During this same year the only federal

activities which had specific concern for the general welfare and promotion of curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools of the land were the programs of the divisions of elementary and secondary education in the U.S. Office of Education. For these two divisions there was $363,000 available in 1949, and this was all to be expended on the federal level. Our generosity with federal vocational funds has generally built the state divisions of vocational education as the largest in state departments of education. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce reports 14 states in which the number of employees devoting full time to vocational education in state departments of education either equals or exceeds the number of full-time employees in all other aspects of education within these departments. In 19 added states at least one-half as many employees of state departments of education are in the vocational field as in the other fields combined.[5]

The divisions of the U.S. Office of Education devoted to general curricular service or promotion are disproportionately small as compared with the Division of Vocational Education. The latter had available the sum of $511,000 for its operations in 1949, as compared with the $363,000 for general activities in elementary and secondary education as indicated above. The Division of Vocational Education had over two and a half times more funds available to administer one specific phase of secondary education than the Division of Secondary Education had in promotion of general aspects of secondary education. It is natural that this same situation should be reflected in states. Such administrative imbalance both at the federal and at the state level is a matter of genuine concern to those who desire curricular balance in our schools.

This is definitely not an argument against federal participation in the field of vocational education. It is merely to point up the fact that the federal government, by its lack of concern for the totality of education, has been a potential factor in developing a state of curricular imbalance in the states. Realistically we must

[5] *Responsibility of the States in Education: The Fourth R,* Chamber of Commerce of the United States, pp. 37–38.

admit that the promotion of special causes or specialized aspects of education has been of greater concern to the Congress than have the interests of a well-rounded program to meet the basic educational needs of the youth of the nation. We have implemented state development in one field without sufficient concern for general educational leadership in states.

Emphatically it must be said that curricular balance certainly involves an adequate program of vocational education. Inquiry has been made at a number of points as to whether a relaxation of some of the specific requirements of the federal vocational education program would be in the best public interest. There is a considerable belief among those responsible for this program at the state level that the time is not ripe for a diminution of federal controls. These individuals in general feel that much that is valuable has come with federal controls and that these gains might be wiped out in states where general leadership is not sufficiently broad to realize the importance of this program. They fear that the high standards of vocational proficiency training would be jeopardized; that a fusion with the program of general education might result which would diminish the effectiveness of this specific program; that vocational education might thus be made impotent to serve the needs of youth in equipping them to make a livelihood. They fear that the normal academically trained school administrator may not appreciate the significance of vocational education in our national life. In other cases they fear that politically selected state educational authorities might dissipate funds to less worthy causes or less worthy enterprises in the field of vocational education if federal requirements were relaxed. If these individuals are correct, our program of education would then be in an opposite position of imbalance.

We again come back to the problem of adequate development of leadership and initiative at the state level. Should federal vocational funds relinquish their detailed controls, but continue as grants for the general support of vocational education, a number of states could now take full responsibility for their vocational education programs with probably even more effective results than

those carried on under the present federal program. In other states, however, this would probably not be the case.

Another aspect of the problem must be mentioned. As there is considerable specificity in the program, derived both from federal requirements and requirements which states write into their federally approved plans, it naturally takes a considerable staff at both federal and state levels to administer and supervise the activity. In a sense this staff may become a vested interest which at least potentially may desire to perpetuate unnecessary detail in order to preserve positions. The administration and supervision of detail also are often not conducive to the best interests of desirable leadership, initiative, and fruitful experimentation. In these respects again we have a potential vicious circle.

What are the possible solutions of these problems as they concern vocational education? Several may be mentioned: (1) eliminate all controls and make grants to states only for the general support of education; (2) eliminate detailed controls and make grants to states for the general support of vocational education; (3) attempt to build more effective ability in states to assume real professional leadership and initiative in all phases of their educational programs, including vocational education; (4) eliminate all federal support of education.

The first has much to commend it. However, until the third is accomplished, the program of vocational education would be very likely to suffer great losses. This is a goal towards which we might well work, with the assumption that it might take a score of years to accomplish. For the present it must be discarded.

The second is more feasible, but still inappropriate until the third is accomplished. However, this might be attainable in a shorter period of time.

The third is essential if we would correct this and many other situations noted in this study.

The fourth is contrary to the national and state interest. Moreover, it is a denial of our extensive and beneficial historical tradition of federal concern for education. It fails to recognize the rather startling differences in the fiscal abilities of states to support

their own educational programs. It would perpetuate educational inequality and hinder the advancement of those poorer states which now are making above average effort in the support of their educational programs.

Thus we come to the conclusion that a combination of the second and third solutions offers our best chance of success. A federally sponsored program to strengthen state departments of education so that they may be able to assume more rather than less initiative and responsibility in the conduct of their educational programs including those programs supported by federal funds is essential if we would care for the immediate situation under discussion as well as many other situations of concern to this report. It would probably be money in the federal pocketbook in the long run if a relatively small federal subsidy were granted to state departments of education for their general support. Rewards other than monetary should far exceed any federal saving involved. To insure that this grant is used for appropriate purposes it may be advisable to make it contingent upon the federal approval of a state organizational and functional plan. Such a plan should have considerable latitude within general minimal standards as specified by the federal educational agency.

The U.S. Office of Education should embark upon a major program of research, service, and leadership to give assistance to states in planning more effective state administration of education. The total educational enterprise of the federal government as it concerns elementary and secondary education in the states should be revised to strengthen rather than weaken state departments of education. More funds should be given to the Office of Education so that it can render a balanced service to the states in educational matters.

Under the plan as suggested it is assumed that possibly five years may be needed to accomplish the purpose. Immediate review by representatives of the federal program for vocational education, state chief school officers, and state directors of vocational education should be made to ascertain those federal con-

trols, if any, which can be relaxed at this time. A plan for the next five years should be developed. This plan should not only concern itself with relaxation of federal controls, but with other problems of the program, such as the extension of vocational education in agriculture to the approximately 8,000 rural high schools where it is not now in operation (another 8,000 schools do have the program, however), the alleged tendency of the program to be utilized more in wealthier areas than in poorer areas, or the desirability of closer association of the program in vocational education with the program in general education.

## IV. A Case Study

In connection with this report a few members of the staff of the State Department of Education in New York were asked by the State Commissioner of Education to submit their reactions regarding the federal activities which concern the operations of their programs within the State. These comments are so pertinent in review of the federal activities as they concern the regular elementary and secondary schools of the country that excerpts are quoted therefrom. It will be noted that there is not complete agreement between these individuals on a number of points.

*Individual A:* To an increasing extent the federal government, through the United States Office of Education and various other agencies, is being interjected into the state and local picture and current prospects for a program of federal aid to education makes studies of this kind all the more necessary and important.

. . . It is difficult in a brief memorandum to outline adequately certain of the problems involved. . . . For the purposes you have requested, I shall limit myself in this memo to little more than a bare enumeration of the various problems as follows:

1. *The Lack of Balance in Federal Emphasis on Education.* The concern and participation of the federal government in education have developed on the basis of isolating certain phases of education for particular attention and assistance, depending upon the current popularity of these areas and the pressures exerted in their behalf, as for example, in the fields of vocational education, vocational rehabilitation and

school lunch programs. The effect of this policy has been to seriously unbalance the administrative and supervisory structures of state and federal education agencies with distinctly unfavorable results. Examples of the extent to which this lack of balance exists can be seen in the organization of this or any other state department. For example, we have a bureau chief and four supervisors for the field of agricultural education for a program serving approximately 20,500 students. On the other hand, we have one supervisor of English in the Division of Secondary Education despite the fact that approximately 1,000,000 students study this key subject in the schools of New York.

2. *Arbitrary Federal Control Stultifies Development of State and Local Programs of Education.* The best evidence of this problem can be seen in the lack of development of trade and industrial education in the small cities, villages and rural areas of this country. This is largely due to federal regulations which make it impractical, if not impossible, to develop sound programs of training in these fields in other than large urban areas. Attempts of the federal government to insure the proper expenditure of federal moneys frequently make it impossible to adapt programs to the needs of particular communities. As a result, for example, it has never been possible to develop industrial education in small cities and towns to the extent that employment opportunities in these areas warrant.

3. *Control of Educational Functions by Non-educational Federal Agencies.* The history of the school lunch program under the administration of the United States Department of Agriculture, and school construction in war production communities under P.W.A. are glaring examples of how federal authority can be used to by-pass state departments of education, thus interfering seriously with state-wide plans and programs for the development of education in the various communities.

4. *Failure of Federal Government to Consider Overall Needs of Education.* This problem is somewhat related to No. 1 above but differs in its application and effects. While there have been attempts in the past to plan a program of federal aid to education sufficiently broad in its aspects so as to permit each state and area to concentrate on its particular educational needs, no such program has yet received much consideration. Latest efforts (the Taft bill, for example) are directed toward meeting the problem of teacher salaries. While this is probably the No. 1 financial problem of education in most states, the fact remains that other needs, though becoming increasingly serious, are

more or less ignored. If we are to have federal aid for education, and that aid is to be used with maximum efficiency, every state and community should not be required to use that aid, say for teacher salaries, when as in the case of New York State, for example, school construction, not teacher salaries, may be the most urgent problem. Another example of this difficulty has to do with the limitations placed on vocational subsidies. These subsidies are allocated to individual states with the provision, however, that they may be used only for salaries and teacher training activities. This policy assumes that all the states and communities already possess, or are in a position to acquire, the necessary facilities in which to offer programs of vocational education. This is simply not the case, with the result that considerable amounts of these funds are forfeited each year by certain states lacking vocational facilities to those communities which, because of their superior ability to finance education, already possess the facilities for these programs. I do not have the information to substantiate this, but I am convinced that studies would show that a large portion of federal aid for vocational education is now going to communities and states best equipped to finance such programs on their own.

There are other less fundamental problems involved and many ramifications to those mentioned above. Because of the effect which federal policies have on this particular branch of the Department, I shall be extremely interested in the progress of studies contemplated. . . .

*Individual B:* During the years of the depression, as well as during the war-time period, numerous federal agencies used federal funds for so-called educational projects and services. These agencies, as you know, include W.P.A., N.Y.A., Federal Housing Authority, the Department of Agriculture in the distribution of surplus foods, later the [same Department] . . . in the allocation of funds for the use of schools in maintaining school lunches, the allocation of funds by the Federal Security Agency for the education of physically handicapped children and the numerous Federal agencies that have been involved in the allocation of excess and surplus federal properties and the preparation of plans and specifications for school buildings. The situation is extremely complex even to those officials in State offices who are supposed to be reasonably familiar with federal administrative practices. I am quite sure that a large part of our administrative difficulties in dealing with these agencies is due to the lack of [placing of authority in] . . .

the United States Office of Education. A perfect example of this lack . . . was demonstrated when the administration of the Federal Rehabilitation Service was taken away from the Office of Education and made a separate department in the Federal Security Agency.

I have been rather intimately associated with the administration of the Smith-Hughes Act and subsequent acts providing federal aid for vocational education. The purpose of the original Smith-Hughes Act was to promote vocational education and vocational teacher training through the allocation of federal funds for these purposes to the various states. At the time of the enactment of the original Smith-Hughes Law, vocational education was in its infancy and only a few states, including New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Indiana and Wisconsin, had developed vocational training programs and very little attention was being paid in those states to the preparation of vocational teachers with the exception of those trained in the field of agriculture. I realize that many people complain about the standards imposed by the federal government in the administration of the vocational education acts. It is true, however, that all of those standards were based upon the experience of the states, referred to above at the time of the enactment of the original Smith-Hughes law. The standards imposed by the federal government under the old Federal Board for Vocational Education were those recommended by the states that had made a beginning in the development of vocational education.

Outside of the time requirements in the day vocational schools, I am sure there has been little criticism of the administration of these vocational acts. The federal laws are so flexible that the states are in a position to use the money in a way that will most effectively promote the further development of vocational education. Some of the more progressive states have encountered difficulties in persuading the United States Office of Education to interpret its policies so as to make it possible to undertake new and desirable types of vocational education. In our own State this was particularly true in the field of technical education, beginning in the early days of the development of our technical education, offering specialized technical courses, until a later date in the development of post-secondary technical training programs. All of these technical programs trained young men, and some women, for entrance into technical occupations which did not require the old type of craft skills. In general, however, I am convinced that the origi-

nal Federal Vocational Education Act which required: (1) the establishment of teacher training programs one year prior to the establishment of vocational programs in the public schools; (2) the setting up of administrative and supervisory staffs in the state departments of education; and (3) the flexibility in the use of federal funds, was fundamentally sound and did more than any single bit of federal legislation to promote a sound program of vocational education. I realize that many of the weak states bitterly resented being required to provide central office administrative and supervisory personnel. This was absolutely essential in the development of any reasonably uniform and fundamentally sound program of vocational education. These same states would have welcomed federal funds for the development of similar central office personnel in the fields of elementary and secondary education.

There is one other feature in the Federal Vocational Education Acts that is worthy of mention. All of the federal money apportioned to the states is in accordance with certain population ratios established in the federal acts. In other words, every state is guaranteed a given amount of money subject to the fluctuations which occur in population distribution in the states. As a result, the states can plan on a definite amount of federal aid for every ten year period. The slight changes in the allocation of federal funds occur after each federal census of population. From the standpoint of good state administration this is a fundamentally sound plan. It enables the states to promise to the public schools a definite amount of money for work carried on under the federal acts. It also enables the state departments of education to request state appropriations with reasonable assurance that the federal funds for the matching of state appropriations will be available.

I mention this basis of apportioning federal funds because of the changed policy in Washington in regard to the allocation of federal grants. Since the early '30's most federal grants, and this statement does not particularly apply to education, are based upon evidence of need. As a result someone in Washington can determine from year to year the needs of a given state and allocate the funds on the basis of evidence of need. This has resulted in a control of the use of federal funds far in excess of anything that has been provided by the Federal Vocational Education Acts.

The Federal Vocational Education Acts have been in operation for approximately thirty years and I am reasonably sure that the small

amount of federal money made available to the states has resulted in the development of a very comprehensive program of vocational education, including for the first time in the history of this country, vocational education opportunities ranging from courses in agriculture in a small rural high school to specialized technical training in large urban schools adapted to the interests and aptitudes of hundreds of thousands of youth. The funds have also made it possible to develop through continuation, part-time schools and evening schools, continued educational opportunities for hundreds of thousands of young people and adults whose chances for success in their chosen field of employment were greatly enhanced because of the special educational opportunities made available, in part at least, through the allocation of federal funds. It is quite possible through the experience of the past years, the Federal Vocational Acts need to be amended to more adequately meet the present day vocational education needs of the country. For example, in the funds available for trade and industrial education, it is no longer necessary to ear-mark one-third of this money for part-time or continuation schools. Changed social and economic conditions, plus laws requiring boys and girls to remain in school until they are sixteen years of age, have eliminated the need for the continuation schools of twenty or twenty-five years ago. These proposed changes, however, represent minor refinements of legislation that is basically sound.

*Individual C:* From 1920, when our program [for vocational rehabilitation] was first initiated, until 1943 all expenditures were on a dollar for dollar matching basis. Fifty per cent of the cost of administration, services and all other expenses were provided by the Federal Government and fifty per cent by the State. Since 1943, following enactment of the Barden-La Follette amendments to the Federal Rehabilitation Law, the Federal Government has been furnishing funds to cover all administrative costs plus fifty per cent of the cost of case services. Under this financial arrangement the Federal Government has been providing seventy per cent or more of the funds used by the respective states. Naturally, this has resulted in more Federal control, particularly with respect to the use of Federal funds, and a set of rules and regulations has been issued by the Federal Office for the guidance of the states.

However, the Federal Government has not interfered seriously with the administration of the programs in the states. They have not dupli-

cated personnel as in some other programs, but instead they have adhered to the policy that the states should operate their programs in accordance with their own policies and procedures. Each operates in accordance with an approved Plan of Administration, and as long as the state has administered the program in accordance with the provisions of its individual Plan no serious objections have been raised by the Federal Government.

Those of us connected with the state programs have felt that the original rules and regulations, issued by the Federal Office in 1943, were rather complicated, somewhat difficult of interpretation and included statements of policy and certain recommended procedures as a part of the regulations. It was our opinion that the rules and regulations, being based on provisions of the law should include only regulations actually mandated by law. Our criticisms of the rules and regulations, have resulted in the issuance of revised rules and regulations, which are easier of interpretation, less restrictive, and are confined to matters of interpretation of the law rather than to matters of policy. . . .

There is one matter with regard to this Federal and State relationship which I think should be borne in mind, and that is that the Budget Estimates, Financial Reports, Statistical Reports and other information required by the Federal Government necessitates the hiring of additional personnel, which would not be needed if it were not for the information which has to be prepared for the Federal Government.

There is one other point which may be of interest although it may not apply to any other type of program. It is a matter which has been brought about by the difference in the provisions of the State Rehabilitation Laws compared with the Federal Law. As an example, in our State Law there is no provision which requires us to determine financial need for the provision of any rehabilitation service. On the other hand the Federal Law requires that financial need be determined before certain services can be provided, and makes it necessary for the states to establish need in accordance with the Federal Law before Federal Funds can be used to cover the costs of the service. There have been times when this difference has raised some problems in the administration of our program. However, our State Law includes a provision accepting any law enacted by Congress, and for this reason we have felt that it was necessary for us to adopt the Federal policy of establishing need for certain services.

[I hope the above] . . . will point up certain questions which may arise in any program where Federal-State relationship is involved. . . .

*Individual D:* . . . The only activity in which I have direct responsibility relates to the fiscal affairs of the School Lunch Program under the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Considering the fact that this is a new program and one operated by other than the Office of Education, I feel that we have been unusually successful in arriving at a smooth running relationship. Of course, we have had problems to work out with representatives of the Federal Government but these have all been eminently satisfactory up to date. Some matters are still pending but we have no reason for concern or complaint since they seem to be moving as rapidly as we have any right to expect.

[Reference has been made to] . . . "dumping" of surplus food. There have been numerous cases of this sort of thing but it creates no hardship on either the state or local community since no cost to either the state or local communities is involved. It is a little disturbing sometimes to have too many sweet potatoes to use or nut meats or any other commodity that is in surplus. I have no constructive suggestion as to better management of surplus foods.

*Individual E:* My comments relative to the impact of the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen vocational acts on New York State's program of vocational education are as follows:

1. During the past thirty years, there have been many instances when Federal funds have served a useful purpose. Vocational education is one of our most expensive subject areas. A Federal subsidy has often served to encourage small communities to establish appropriate types of vocational training. I am sure that a number of them would not have taken such action without Federal assistance.

2. I cannot recall a single instance of U.S. Office of Education interference with New York State's vocational education program in a manner contrary to our best interests. As a matter of fact, the existence of the Federal pattern of vocational school organization has often served to help us establish and maintain sound standards.

## V. State Matching of Federal Funds, Effect on Equalization of Educational Opportunity

In economically poor states high taxes for schools produce only mediocre educational programs while in wealthy states relatively low taxes can, potentially at least, produce much better education. When the federal government requires straight matching of its grants in aid the tendency is to force the poorer states to dig relatively further into their tax pockets than the richer states. In order to receive the desired federal assistance the matching thus requires the poorer states to make a proportionately greater fiscal effort or to curtail other desired educational or governmental functions. Neither of these is in the interests of equalizing educational opportunity in its broader aspects or of equalizing the tax burden for education. The matching plan, except as a temporary expediency to encourage all states to undertake desired educational activities in the hope that they will ultimately develop their own initiative, is not wholly desirable. The federal government may well introduce the factor of state fiscal ability to support education more generally into its grants. The effect of such a plan on the poorer states would be highly beneficial. One of the major concerns of the federal government should be to equalize educational opportunity in the nation.

# *Chapter 13.* PRESENT EFFECT OF FEDERAL EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES ON HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

The problem of federal relations to higher institutions in the country is quite different from that of federal relations to elementary and secondary schools, primarily due to four factors. First, privately supported institutions of learning are more definitely a part and parcel of our regularly constituted educational system on the higher level than on the level of elementary and secondary schools. Second, because of this, and due to the traditional independence of higher institutions whether publicly or privately supported, there is seldom an over-all state planning or administrative agency for these institutions. Third, because of the advanced and specialized nature of studies and researches in higher educational institutions there is often a specialized agency of the government closely associated with or somewhat in the position of a federal counterpart to the specialized interests within the colleges and universities. Fourth, and somewhat related to the third, the higher educational institutions of the land have been found to be an excellent avenue for the promotion and extension of many matters in the national interest.

These factors complicate the relations between the government and these institutions. Direct dealings between many hundreds of colleges and universities by scores of federal departments, independent agencies, and sub-agencies naturally result. The large volume of activities and moneys involved in these varied relationships usually have not been subject to objective formulas, often resulting in competition between institutions for federal

activities or competition between federal agencies to have their activities introduced into certain institutions. The varied nature of the projects makes it difficult to establish any comprehensive over-all federal policy in these relationships.

It is not within the purpose of the report, devoted to education, to attempt an evaluation of these activities as they concern the promotion or operation of the various specialties of the non-educational governmental agencies involved. In this connection, however, it may be repeated that much unnecessary federal duplication of facilities in specialized staff, buildings, and equipment is avoided by utilizing the rich resources of the higher educational institutions of the land. Our purpose is to answer two questions: first, what is the effect of this total of federal activities on the higher institutions of the country; and second, what policy and organizational changes are needed, if any, on the federal level. Much more exhaustive studies than have been possible in connection with this report are needed. Only the barest outline, of necessity all too casual, can be included.

The President's Commission on Higher Education indicated a federal expenditure of $1,772,000,000 in 1946–47 in connection with post-high school education.[1] After considerable study we prefer not to present a total figure for federal activities which involve higher education. As has been pointed out earlier in this report, it is practically impossible to obtain comparable figures for the various federal activities in education. In other cases, as with the education of veterans, it is often impossible to arrive at even a crude estimate of that portion of total funds for an activity or group of activities which eventually reaches higher institutions. Rather than deal with an over-all total we believe it essential that the programs which involve higher education be reviewed individually or by groups. Suffice it to say that there has been a tremendous increase in federal activities which involve higher educational institutions.

[1] A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. III, "Organizing Higher Education," Washington, December 1947, p. 38.

## I. Brief Review of Federal Activities Which Directly Affect or Operate Through Regular Higher Institutions

Practically all of these programs have concerned some special federal interest in a special cause or a special group of individuals. A review of a few examples will be to the point:

Nine federal departments or independent agencies through many more of their sub-agencies are sponsoring research in the regular colleges and universities of the country. Between 1947 and 1949 the sums of money for this purpose increased from almost $89,000,000 to over $160,000,000. The most significant activities in this classification are those of the three departments of the National Military Establishment which had over $53,000,000 available for research and development through higher institutions during 1949, the Atomic Energy Commission with 1949 research funds through colleges and universities of over $81,400,000 (of which over half was for research construction, the majority of which was "off-campus"), and the Department of Agriculture which had available over $18,600,000 ($7,558,000 of which was for grants to states for agricultural experiment stations) for such purposes in 1949.

Federal activities which clearly concern higher education through the regular colleges and universities of the land for special groups of individuals or for special fields of study are operated by eight departments or independent agencies, with several more sub-agencies involved. With the reduction of certain war-incurred activities, federal funds available for these types of activity settled down at over $56,600,000 in 1949. Most significant are the Agricultural Extension Service (increasing from $19,000,000 to almost $31,500,000 between 1940 and 1949); public health fellowships, teaching grants, and construction (increasing from $70,000 to $10,579,000 between 1940 and 1949); and the fellowship program of the Atomic Energy Commission initiated in fiscal 1948 with $2,600,000 available, increasing to $3,400,000 in 1949.

For general support of two special types of higher educational institutions, the state maritime academies and the land grant col-

leges, the sum of $6,518,000 was available in 1949, the amount having been kept fairly constant since 1940.

For pre- or in-service training of government personnel through colleges and universities the federal government obligated $25,-300,000 in 1947 as compared with over $33,700,000 available in 1949. The ROTC and NROTC accounted for a major portion of these funds.

Several departments and agencies are responsible for activities in the international interest which operate through colleges and universities. For 1947, 1948, and 1949 funds for this purpose average about $1,000,000 per year.

The tremendous program for education of veterans under Public Law 346 and Public Law 16 (well over $2,800,000,000 in 1948, as in 1949[2]) has devoted a considerable share of its funds to education and subsistence to students in higher institutions.

As contrasted with the varied and rather large programs which concern special phases of collegiate life, special types of research, or special groups of individuals, the only federal activity which is solely concerned with the general welfare and promotion of higher education in the colleges and universities of the country is that of the Division of Higher Education of the Office of Education, for which $167,000 was available in 1949.

Mention should also be made of the many hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of surplus property donated to or sold at discount to higher educational institutions, the over 16,000,000 square feet of floor space in buildings made available to educational institutions under the Veterans Educational Facilities program, and the well over 147,000 housing units made available for veterans attending educational institutions. No equitable value can be placed on these, nor can it be readily determined what proportion of these facilities went to colleges and universities. These institutions have been major recipients from these activities, however. Several other activities for which funds are not segregated by educational level will have been noted.

In all, nineteen federal departments and independent agencies

[2] Revised unofficial estimates, as of June 1948.

have organized activities which are carried on in the regular colleges and universities of the country. Some of these activities reach all institutions, while others concern only a few. Scores of sub-agencies of these nineteen federal agencies deal independently with colleges and universities. It would be more simple to name the departments or independent agencies of the government which do not deal with colleges and universities, but in the interest of a positive approach the list of these agencies which do have programs which operate in colleges and universities is given: Department of State, Department of the Army, Department of the Navy, Department of the Air Force, Department of Justice, Department of Commerce, Department of the Treasury, Department of Agriculture, Department of the Interior, U.S. Maritime Commission, Federal Works Agency, Veterans Administration, Federal Security Agency, Tennessee Valley Authority, Housing and Home Finance Agency, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Atomic Energy Commission, War Assets Administration, and the Institute of Inter-American Affairs (a government corporation). In addition, a number of other federal agencies have less formal activities or activities related to their more general regulatory operations which involve colleges and universities, such as the licensing of educational broadcast stations by the Federal Communications Commission.

## II. Case Studies

To gain an idea of the dispersion of these various federal programs to the individual colleges and universities and to learn something of the effect on these institutions, forty letters were addressed to presidents of representative colleges and universities of the country.[3] Thirty-two replies were received during May, June, and July of 1948. A number of representative excerpts and digests of materials appearing in these letters are presented below.

A. *Extent of Federal Activities in Individual Colleges and Universities.* All of these institutions had the usual educational ac-

[3] This letter is reproduced in Appendix C.

tivities with veterans, which should be taken for granted even though sometimes not mentioned in these case studies.

A privately endowed eastern university reported ROTC and NROTC units, for which no direct federal moneys were received, and contract research totaling $1,406,443 from seven federal agencies and involving medicine, physics, electrical engineering, chemistry, forestry, astronomy, oceanography, mathematics, psychology, and zoology.

A southeastern liberal arts college reported a Field Artillery ROTC unit and the usual contacts with the Veterans Administration and the War Assets Administration. "Our relations with these groups have also been satisfactory."

The university of a western state has ROTC and NROTC units, $3,900 federal aid through the state board for vocational education for training teachers in vocational education, and 16 research projects aggregating $1,444,617. Ten federal agencies, exclusive of the General Accounting Office, are involved.

A northwestern land grant college received $741,120 from the federal government in 1948 for: instruction, $110,684; agricultural experiment station, $163,860; and agricultural extension, $466,575. In addition, this institution had two research contracts in physical sciences totaling $25,887, and a grant of $1,865 for research in medical sciences.

A well-known Negro institution in the south reports that it has Infantry and Air ROTC units, an agricultural extension service activity housed in a building made possible by WPA, and a veterans' testing service unit which costs about $7,500 annually.

A northwestern liberal arts college reports the following federally sponsored activities through five federal agencies:

1. Veterans' Guidance Center which handled 5,412 cases through April 30, 1948, financed at $20 per veteran receiving counseling, paid by the Veterans Administration.

2. Veterans' housing project totaling 62 rooms, the cost to the college having been $27,063.

3. Faculty office building of 10,000 square feet through Federal Works Agency, the college cost being $30,024.

4. Gymnasium-auditorium of 10,000 square feet through Federal Works Agency, the college cost being $30,037.

5. Educational equipment and supplies, procured from government surplus, ranging from electronics equipment to a 33-passenger bus, at a cost to the college of $2,100 but estimated to be valued at $38,000.

6. Veterans' education. Formerly about 50 per cent of the students were under Public Law 346 and Public Law 16. This has now been reduced to about 30 per cent.

7. Two research contracts in physical sciences totaling about $20,500.

A midwest land grant university estimates its 1947–48 receipts from the federal government to be $211,000 for the agricultural experiment station; $611,000 for its agricultural extension service; $157,000 for training of vocational teachers and general support; and well over $500,000 for contract research and development from nine federal agencies or sub-agencies. The Veterans Administration pays tuition and fees for 8,500 veterans, for which the government provided temporary living accommodations in 590 family apartments and dormitories for approximately 1,500 individuals at a cost to the university of $1,100,000. Temporary classrooms and storage facilities of approximately 110,000 square feet plus 15 quonset huts were federally provided, with the university share of cost being $550,000.

Added contracts for student instruction included fees for three officers from Army Corps of Engineers, two officers from Army Service Forces, five officers from the United States Military Academy, one officer from Army Quartermaster Corps, 23 officers from Air Corps Air Materiel Command, 150 Naval officer students under NROTC and NACP (through Navy Bureau of Supplies and Accounts), 14 postgraduate officers from the United States Naval

Academy, and two students under U.S. Public Health Service.

In respect to equipment, this institution dealt with the Air Corps, Navy, Army (Ordnance, Signal Corps, and Engineers), War Assets Administration, U.S. Office of Education, and the Federal Works Agency. Equipment included machine tools, hand tools, shop equipment and supplies, laboratory equipment, scientific equipment, electronic equipment and supplies, office and classroom furniture, office and dormitory equipment. Miscellaneous contracts with the federal government included counseling service to veterans at $38,300, including lease of space and telephone; $5,800 from the Navy for medical services, lease of space, and construction of facilities; $100 from the Department of Agriculture for lease of space; and $2 from the CAA for lease of space for weather bureau and beacon site. The Federal Communications Commission issues a 3-year contract and makes periodic inspections of the university radio station. ROTC and NROTC units are maintained, with the university furnishing buildings and maintenance for the academic program.

A midwestern church-sponsored university reports that it has federally sponsored activities through nine governmental agencies. The activities include:

1. NROTC, which has 83 students for each of whom there is paid each semester to the university $240 for tuition.
2. NACP, with 3 students with fiscal remuneration as in the NROTC.
3. AROTC, which has 55 students and for which the university receives no funds from the Air Corps, at least under the present set-up which embraces only basic studies.
4. Contract research, with 12 projects totaling over $500,000.
5. The usual program for veterans under Public Law 346 and Public Law 16, with "students in large number."

The federal activities in a southeastern state university include: an NROTC unit for which the Navy paid $43,875 for tuition, fees, textbooks, and equipment supplied to trainees, services for Navy-

paid personnel, and use of Navy-owned equipment; an Air ROTC unit for which no fees were paid to the university; two Army officers studying personnel management for which the Army pays the university $1,217 annually; 4 Air Force officers in regular university courses for which the university is paid $1,600 annually; and 9 research contracts totaling slightly less than $200,000.

A Great Lakes area state university, in addition to ROTC and NROTC, reports:

| | |
|---|---|
| Vocational education | $ 31,310 |
| VA, rent for consultation service | 2,250 |
| U.S. Public Health Service grants | 232,151 |
| Instructional contracts | 94,252 |
| VA, "G.I." benefits to students | 4,456,700 |
| 62 research contracts, largely science | 6,099,496 |
| Total federal funds | $10,916,159 |

Added activities include the following: U.S. Forest Service makes forest lands available for experimental work; Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine (USDA) makes a truck available for work in forest entomology; a professor collaborates with the Bureau of Plant Industry, USDA; federal funds for crippled children come indirectly to the university hospital; two professors are paid a small annual fee as consultants with the Public Health Service; a staff member is consultant in medical matters to the Navy which pays $1,000 annually to the Serological Service; office space is given to an officer and one other from the U.S. Public Health Service and the officer serves as a lecturer without compensation; The Rapid Treatment Center of the hospital, directed by the State Department of Health, is financed by the U.S. Public Health Service, pays rent, and so forth, to the university, and is used for teaching purposes; the Fish and Wildlife Service (Department of the Interior) has quarters for five individuals, two of whom serve on the graduate faculty of the university, and furnishes materials for biological research and access to its specialized library; housing is furnished to a district office of the U.S. Geological Survey and the officer in charge co-operates with departmental staff, serves on doctoral committees, and this ac-

tivity "tends to bring oil people to the campus and makes for good public relations of the Department"; departmental members who manage the Weather Station are unpaid observers of the U.S. Weather Bureau; housing is furnished for staff of the Veterans Administration who deal both with local students and veterans of the surrounding area.

Another Great Lakes area state university reports that it received money from 19 federal departments, independent agencies, or sub-agencies in 1946–47 including $1,002,900 for non-contract research and over $500,000 in contract research in the fields of medicine, physics, electronics, aeronautics, chemistry, hydraulics, agriculture, and psychology.

A northeastern privately endowed institution states that aside from the ROTC and a few other federal projects it has 109 government-sponsored research projects under 45 contracts with over-all total federal funds of about $10,000,000. For these research activities it has contracts with 16 different government agencies and bureaus.

The twelve institutions selected at random for description of their federal activities are typical of the 32 for which reports have been received. Institutions varied from those having only the usual veterans' programs or an ROTC unit to an institution (in co-operation with others) which had much larger contract research activities than indicated in any of the twelve institutions treated above. Certain other institutions stated that they dealt with from 20 to over 25 federal agencies in connection with the federal activities operating in their institutions.

*B. Effect of Federal Activities on Colleges and Universities.* The officials of the institutions to whom the letter was addressed were asked for reactions to these federal programs which operate through their institutions on such matters as improvement of staff, federal controls, variability in federal policy, curricular balance, impact on students, and long-range social and educational sig-

nificance. The following, as they concern these and similar matters, are from these replies. Because of the extensive discussion of the problems involved over the years, we have taken the liberty of quoting rather extensively.

Federal research contracts have proved stimulating in an important way to members of the University faculty especially in the scientific fields, in particular Navy research projects because they deal with basic research problems have proved advantageous in the training of faculty and graduate students.

The program of the Veterans Administration under Public Law 346 and 16 have brought to the campus a large body of men more mature in years than prewar undergraduates. The general effect of their presence has stimulated a more mature treatment of subject matter on the part of members of the faculty. At the same time the young freshman from high school has sometimes been a little overawed by the presence in his classes of these more mature and ready students. The general effects of the influx of men under the G.I. Bill is generally well known, but the problems of integration involved in a greatly increased student body and greatly increased faculty have not been sufficiently emphasized.

The impact on the University resulting from the ever increasing demands of veteran students has produced for the University a difficult problem of expansion. The veterans' tuition paid by the federal government has made this expansion possible. As the number of veterans diminishes the demands on University facilities will decrease, and we shall have a problem in the deflation or reduction of personnel and facilities. Dormitories filled to more than capacity will return to normal, some temporary buildings for academic purposes must be removed, emergency housing for married students, *e.g.*, trailers, will have to be liquidated, appointments of a certain number of faculty members will have to be discontinued. This process of reduction will undoubtedly bring with it an abnormal cost, and a state university operating on a budget can with difficulty if at all set up reserves to meet such a contingency. Apparently state institutions will be left to meet this situation with their own resources as best they can.

I consider these projects and activities to be advantageous. We have no complaints involving federal control.

The highly satisfactory nature of our contract relations with the Office of Naval Research is worthy of especial remark. In its dealing with this University, the ONR has shown an exceptional understanding of the requirements and practices of university research work, as well as an appreciation of what type of work it is appropriate to put into a university, and what type elsewhere. Most of the detailed procedures of the ONR could serve as a model for Federal research contracting with universities. Our experience with Agricultural Research and Extension has also been highly satisfactory.

Federal activities of the kinds mentioned above have been and are most helpful in maintaining a strong program of education, research and service during a period of sharply rising costs, heavy instructional load and the dearth of research assistants, especially in agriculture. Even the contract research work, which might appear to have little influence on the educational program, provides for qualified graduate students a type of experience that could not be so widely available within the University in the absence of contracts.

Fear has sometimes been expressed that the availability of Federal funds principally for applied research, largely in engineering, can lead to such harmful effects as curricular unbalance. We do not share that fear. While it would be desirable to have increased Federal support of research in such areas as the social sciences, nevertheless it must be remembered that, since participation in any given Federal activity is optional with the Federal agency concerned and also with the University, the University itself can thus determine its own program.

Entirely favorable, as far as I know. Federal controls involve issuance and periodic amendment and renewal of contracts, but that is to be expected. There has been steady improvement in relations with the Veterans Administration in which originally there was considerable difference of policy and resulting inefficiency as between different area offices.

The teaching, research, and administrative relationships with the various branches of the government have been most satisfactory. There is, of course, some tendency for project research in large volume to throw a university off balance. This may have an indirect bearing upon the distribution of emphasis both for research and for training purposes. The tendency to overemphasize the Natural Sciences is obvious in the list of projects enclosed.

For the most part the government agencies with which we have dealt have been willing to recognize the responsibility of the University for indirect expense, and reasonable provision has been included under the contracts to meet this item. In a few instances such provision has been inadequate. Wherever this situation maintains there is a further tendency to throw the University off balance in a well-rounded program of training and research. This follows because of the necessity to spend an undue proportion of University funds in the subsidy of project work which without such contracts would not have been undertaken, thus releasing more adequate support for other areas of teaching and research.

These activities have a beneficial effect upon our regular instructional or campus program. We would, in fact, welcome an extension of our ROTC activities. The Agricultural Experiment Stations and Agricultural Extension Services are completely coordinated with the University administration and the support which is given to these activities by the State at large redound to the benefit and support of the instructional program of the University. The financial support for these activities enables us to make a greater variety of offerings because the staff is used in both a research and instructional capacity in many instances. . . . The personnel assigned to these contracts find the work stimulating and helpful to them in their instructional programs. . . .

The Veterans Administration program has, of course, had a terrific impact upon our entire program. Our enrollment has trebled. The staff has doubled, and we have had to double the facilities of the University by providing temporary buildings in order to handle the situation. Fortunately, tenure is not enjoyed by staff members until after three years of service and this period has made it possible for the University to weed out weak staff members who were employed on an acting basis in the emergency period. With the shortage of teachers and the extraordinary enrollment of veterans, it was impossible to screen new staff members as carefully as is customary under normal conditions. . . .

It is my opinion that the G.I. Bill has had a profound effect upon American higher education. We have discovered a great earnestness on the part of our veteran students, lacking in the pre-war student and the non-veteran post-war student. As a group they are maintaining better academic records. They are less interested in educational frills

and social activities. Approximately 3,500 are married and quite naturally they are interested in spending evenings at home with their families and in study rather than in attending various social functions.

The G.I. benefits have enabled innumerable young men to secure a higher education who earnestly desired such an opportunity but who, under normal circumstances, would have been deprived of the chance because of the lack of adequate finances. From a long-range view this will prove beneficial to the nation. Furthermore, educational opportunity is now being given to a large group of students who are "worthy" rather than to those who are merely financially able.

The individual activities indicated above are advantageous to the University in that they permit activities to be undertaken which lie without the scope of the normal University budget. We have found a high consistency in federal policy, and the federal controls have not been onerous.

Reactions to the total federal activity may in this case be regarded as the sum of reactions to the individual activities. Curricular imbalance, if any, does not stem from federal subsidies but from collective trends in the student body conditioned prior to arrival at the institution. Thus the large number of applicants for training in communications in the School of Electrical Engineering—a phenomenon which has been noted through the country—arises from the fact that many of these young men were veterans and became acquainted with radar, loran, etc. etc. during their term in the armed services, and is not the result of federal research funds temporarily allotted to the University. Moreover, federal funds, by permitting the University to undertake research which would not otherwise be possible, contribute to the improvement of staff.

In general, [the university president] feels satisfied that federal activities in the field of education—as represented here at . . . , at least—have been satisfactory to both parties. The general effect of the G.I. bill has been "wonderful." The government contracts which we have accepted have been welcome. In this connection I should note that . . . has consistently refused to accept any contracts, however, for "classified" research.

The research contract has been most valuable in stimulating research interest among the students as well as the staff. It has made it easier for . . . to keep highly qualified men in that field.

The foregoing activities have little or no effect on our regular campus instructional program except that they provide some opportunity for student participation in the projects. . . .

I would say, in general, that I consider our relations with the federal government to be advantageous rather than detrimental to our over-all program, and that these activities should be continued.

My reaction to these various activities is distinctly favorable. I do not at all agree with the hysteria regarding so-called federal control which has been generated in the minds of various people. We have found that invariably when problems arise as between the college and these agencies, sound answers can be found to such problems.

When based on frank discussion and proper understanding of the respective obligations involved, the contacts with Federal agencies engaged in research and education can be of great value to the institution. The experience of . . . college indicates that such understanding and cooperation can be achieved.

From the scientific point of view all of the research contracts are in support of research which we consider of value and which we would like to carry on anyway if our funds were adequate. Hence, they serve, in part, as a valuable supplement to our general sources of income. And, of course, the research under some of these contracts is so valuable that we would have to seek other sources of funds to carry it on if the contracts were canceled.

As far as the scientific work is concerned we have had no difficulty with attempts at Federal control of the research. . . .

On the whole, since the sum-total of funds coming into [this institution] from government contracts is about equal to the total of funds coming from all other sources put together (endowment income, tuition, grants-in-aid, industrial contracts, gifts, etc.) they constitute a major portion of the . . . activities. In other words, we are carrying on each year over $ . . . worth of research which could not be carried on without them, or which would have to be drastically reduced in scale. . . . The on-campus activities are an integral part of the research program. The income therefrom has allowed us to increase faculty salaries, to bring in members of the research staff who participate in teaching, and has relieved the general . . . budget to an appreciable extent. Many graduate students participate to their advantage in these research projects. . . .

On the whole, then, I would say that contracts between Federal agencies and universities present a powerful and valuable tool (*a*) for supporting important research and educational programs at the universities, and (*b*) for carrying on research and education of value to the Federal government. If each university establishes its research policies consistent with its educational aims and refuses to undertake contracts contrary to these policies and aims, the institution need suffer no adverse consequences from such contracts. Federal control of research projects has not been a problem with us but on this point also the universities must maintain their independence and not allow Federal direction to creep in. . . .

On the other hand, it should not be concluded that Federal contracts with universities are the answer to the university financial problems. Such contracts do not provide for permanent buildings, for permanent income, for payment of salaries of permanent staff members, nor do they provide for normal educational expenses. I am not saying that the Federal government should undertake to supply this additional financing which in private institutions has in the past come from private sources. I am only saying that such institutions still need to depend on private sources and Federal contracts do not solve the problem. They allow an institution like this to carry on a more extensive research program than it would be able to carry on with its own funds. This means a larger staff, greater research activity, more opportunities for graduate students. The contracts do not, on the whole, however, bear their proportionate share of the general cost of operating a university.

We believe that our federal contract research program has resulted in the professional improvement of our staff. We do not believe that these contracts have upset curricular balance or have had any detrimental impact on our students.

I should not wish for the College to be too dependent on the federal government for financial grants-in-aid any more than I should wish the College to be dependent on any large foundation support. Fund-granting agencies invariably lay down conditions regarding the use and expenditure of funds. An institution in large measure dependent upon such funds is apt to find itself in a position of yielding to restrictions set forth by the granting agency. Sooner or later it is the

case of "He who pays the piper calls the tune." You will realize, however, that my experience with this subject is too limited to speak with any assurance or authority.

We have since the war tried to limit our new government contracts to such as called only for the type of research that deals with the problems of science, rather than with the development of applications or design of equipment. As a result of this, the policy of research on the government contracts has supplemented and strongly supported the research programs of our scientific developments, especially in physics, geophysics, and sciences related to medicine. In no case have these contracts interfered with our instructional work.

The carrying out of our contracts has been greatly facilitated by the fact that we have in our large body of graduate students a reservoir of very competent persons available to work part time while continuing their studies and research as graduate students. Conversely, the opportunity to earn their way by working part time on government contracts has been of aid to many of our graduate students. . . .

It is clear that the employment of numerous able scientists to work on our government contracts has strengthened our research staff. . . .

We have not as yet experienced any appreciable amount of the evil of undue governmental control through our contracts, nor do we anticipate experiencing any in the near future. I say this because our relations with the scientific officers of the government agencies with which we deal have been uniformly characterized by the best of understanding and mutual interest in achieving scientific results.

In no way, either directly or indirectly, has the Federal Government undertaken to control or affect our curriculum, our staff, or our students in any way not entirely compatible with the highest academic and professional standards. Indeed the assistance which the Federal Government has given to us has made it possible for us to improve our teaching and research program, to recruit and hold an extraordinarily able staff and to admit a considerable number of students who, except for the G.I. Bill of Rights, could not have attended . . . college.

We believe that the relationship with the government agencies has come to stay, since the form of contract provides for proper fiscal controls but leaves the University free to choose the method of research to

be conducted. We have a stimulating association between men in the research activities and those on the campus where a substantial part of the work is done. Problems arise owing to variable federal policy and federal organization but they are not insuperable. Federal controls are of a special sort since the agency requesting research is incapable of directing it in detail. We are therefore relatively free of controls. The one unsatisfactory spot is the settlement of the accounts, which in some instances—not in all—have turned out to impose a financial loss upon the University. . . .

Your final question as to the long-range social and educational significance of federal activities could be answered speculatively but I will not indulge in such an answer. The immediate effect is to stimulate the science departments where such projects lie almost exclusively. I think the general tendency has been helpful, though the caution should be pointed out that over the years the practical aspects of research may become so dominant as to lead to a diminished total of pure research. If the National Science Foundation is created, this tendency can be offset by investment in long-term pure research.

Many of these services of course are not limited to the campus but reach throughout the entire State of . . . . I have no hesitancy in stating that in my opinion the social and educational significance of these federal activities is beneficial from every standpoint, and I believe they have a favorable effect on higher education in general.

In general I believe that such cooperation has been mutually advantageous to the Federal Government, the State of . . . . , and . . . University and will continue to be advantageous in the years to come. . . . University, as an *independent* public institution, is not required to enter into cooperative arrangements with any branch of the Federal Government which are not mutually advantageous. We would be reluctant to engage in any enterprise, the control of which is vested in any outside agency.

Occasionally conflicts arise as a result of our cooperation with the Federal Government, but some differences will always arise when two distinct governmental agencies attempt a cooperative enterprise. Such differences arise not as the result of a direct conflict of interest, but as a result of differences in procedure which are incorporated in the statutory provisions of the State or the Federal Government. We have

found that conflicts and differences can be resolved through discussion and negotiation. We believe that public institutions such as . . . University should continue to cooperate with the Federal Government to the mutual advantage of the nation as a whole and the immediate state served by such institutions.

These activities are generally helpful and stimulating to the program of. . . . ROTC does require some cash expenditure on part of [the institution] which is difficult to finance, particularly a specialized feature as a rifle range or care of supplies and equipment actually used by Army personnel in their instructional program.

Generally speaking, the programs under consideration do not seriously throw our regular program out of balance and the impact is not unfavorable on our students. We think of these programs as virtually a part of the . . . [institution's] total program.

The total effect of federal activity here has not been detrimental in any of the respects suggested. . . . Our relations with the federal agencies have worked smoothly and we have not found federal regulations onerous.

At this institution over the years there has been a relatively small allocation of University funds for research purposes. The result is that grants from outside the institution do have considerable impact on the staff and student curricular activities. We are making a strong effort to increase the allocation of local funds to organize research efforts and thus bring more balance into the situation. When we are fully successful in this regard, the impact of federal and outside funds generally will not be such as to have untoward effects on the central program of the University. In general the University has been fortunate in securing support from outside sources, including federal agencies, thus increasing the distinction of the University's research effort and the distinction of its staff as well. . . .

There is no important criticism of Federal relationships. It is felt that the attitudes of Federal agencies are entirely fair, and that the execution of the projects is both free and flexible. In particular, the Office of Naval Research was commented upon as having an excellent attitude towards the requirements of sound research.

In brief summary, the opportunity to undertake research projects in

behalf of the Federal government is regarded as a sound and highly desirable arrangement from the standpoint of the University and the Federal government. It is hoped that these relationships can be continued and extended upon the existing free, cooperative and flexible basis.

We have felt no major concern over federal control. . . . The federal activities, as a whole, at the University . . . have no influence on our curricula. They have a wholesome effect on our faculty through stimulation of research and the exchange of information by the institutions sponsoring similar activities. Any impact on students comes almost entirely through the two ROTC programs, and are certainly a broad influence, not only on these students but on the campus as a whole.

In general, I can say that the activities supported by federal funds have been advantageous to the University. We have not been hampered by federal controls. As a matter of fact, the encouragement to research has enabled us to maintain and even improve the quality of our staff.

As a whole we consider our relationships of great advantage not only as stimulation to our staff in the matter of providing close contact with the work of the various federal agencies but also for the contributions which the federal staffs located on this campus make to our College program throughout the state. I think, without exception, the federal agencies located here have been considered by our staff and governing body as being highly beneficial to our whole program.

*C. Suggestions for Improvement of Federal Relationships with Higher Institutions.* Many suggestions have been given by these representative college and university officials, either directly or implied, for the improvement of federal relationships with higher educational institutions. A number of these, representative of all, are indicated below.

Our reactions . . . with respect to federal relations have been most favorable. We have been singularly fortunate in our negotiations with the various branches of the federal government and we have expe-

rienced a minimum of the proverbial federal "red tape". . . . I am of the opinion that there is need for coordination and consolidation of the various housing agencies in Washington. The multiple agencies are confusing to the average citizen. . . .

The experience of the universities and colleges resulting from the veterans' educational program have convinced us of the desirability of establishing federal aid to assist worthy students in the future.

There is great need for simplification in the procedures governing the negotiation of contracts with Federal agencies, the terms of such contracts, the reporting of work done under such contracts, and the accounting procedures that govern reimbursement under such contracts. The principle should be firmly established that a university is a responsible, non-profit institution, pursuing educational and research objectives in the public interest. Recognition of this principle would greatly simplify methods of administration, both within the university and within the Federal Government. It is suggested that:

1. Grants or programs should be stated in the broadest terms possible.

2. The institution should be left with a free hand as to the methods of conduct of the programs, the details of financial operation, and the selection of personnel.

3. The requirements placed upon the institution should be those of:

*a.* accomplishment to the fullest extent possible of the objectives of the grant or program and a full report of what has been accomplished, and

*b.* a certified accounting of the expenditure of funds.

It has sometimes been suggested that a single agency to handle all activities of the type discussed here would be wise. The wisdom of this step seems doubtful; for the types of activities vary so widely that such a central agency would have to refer matters to those informed and interested—that is, to one of the existing agencies. The result might thus be merely the addition of one more step to the process.

Perhaps it would be wise to establish in the office of the President a coordinating officer with authority to establish, for example, a uniform type of research contract and uniform principles of reimbursement, to be used by all Federal agencies in their dealing with universities.

In this connection, attention is called to the fact that a committee . . . has been set up . . . for the purpose of attempting to prepare a

uniform research and development contract form for use by all branches of the Army.

I do think that some form of centralized channeling of contacts of federal agencies with universities would serve some advantages though this should never be of a rigidly restrictive character. I think flexibility of program and approach among the federal agencies with a good deal of autonomy is implicit in freedom of choice among institutions and agencies as to promotion of worthwhile research. Another bureau or agency might actually impede rather than help the process of choice among institutions and projects in the interests of worthwhile research. On our part at the University . . . I feel that we can do a good deal more in the way of organizing our efforts and our programming of research toward a better utilization of facilities and staff and thus create more balance in our whole program. This we intend to do by a careful study of University policy with regard to this whole matter.

Coordination of federal activities on the college campuses would seem to me slightly dangerous, since the coordinating agency might have too much power centralized in its grasp. Such a coordinating agency would, moreover, add one layer of complicated procedure to go through.

The most obvious defect in the University's support so far centers around the reluctance of any federal agency to make direct and general grants for the support of basic research.

Dealing with a multiplicity of federal agencies, naturally, has its inconveniences and limitations. This is particularly true in the field of contract negotiations, overhead allowances, and administrative and accounting procedures in connection with research grants. We shall never be convinced that it is necessary for each federal department to have its own contract forms, its own methods of accounting, and its individualistic policies with reference to overhead allowances and other procedures. . . .

We have three suggestions relative to the improvement of relations between the universities and the federal government which are as follows:

1. There should be uniform contract forms and procedures covering contract research supervised by the several federal departments interested in research.

2. There should be one set of federal auditors checking records pertaining to contract research.

3. Most important, the system of almost complete centralization of authority in Washington should be broken down to endow regional and local offices with specific authority to make final decisions and to enter into binding contracts. This difficulty has evidenced itself most strongly in our relations with the Veterans Administration. We have been handicapped by the inability of our local or regional office to render prompt decisions on which we can rely. We know of several important instances in which decisions made by a regional office have been reversed a year later by the central authority in Washington. This sort of centralization, in our opinion, is one of the greatest handicaps to an efficient and effective relationship between the federal government and educational institutions.

It has been suggested that research money in outright grants would be profitable to the present system which brings with it considerable supervision and frequent auditing. An outright grant would make a saving in government cost of administration thereby realizing additional money for research.

It would be helpful if all government agencies adopted uniform research contract provisions and administrative procedures. This is an important point and the divergences, especially of administrative procedures, has created and is creating difficulties on this campus. Members of the faculty receive different financial treatment depending upon whether their research contracts are with one branch of the service or another.

With the volume of federally related activities on the campus the University has a responsibility of acting as banker for the federal government. The University advances the expenses involved in the various research projects and carries the 4,000 to 5,000 veteran students until the federal government has paid on vouchers submitted by the University. The money advanced by the University for research projects amounts to an average of $75,000 a month, and at the present time there is approximately one million dollars owed by the Veterans Administration to the University. Under the present Veterans Ad-

ministration payment method the lowest accounts receivable figure possible for our institution is $500,000.

This University is a State University. It operates on a budget. It has only that amount of money needed to pay its current expenses. For that reason, when the receivables get too large, its cash situation becomes such that borrowing to meet its current obligations becomes necessary. The cash situation will become more serious next year for the University when its current surplus is gone. Outright grants of research money and payment of obligations when incurred by the Veterans Administration would be extremely helpful to the University's financial position.

We experience some difficulties in the matter of handling federal funds on the federal fiscal year and coordinating the accounting with our state fiscal year. At present we have funds set up under six separate federal acts, all of which are partial support for our agricultural experiment program. Each of the accounts is required to be accounted for separately. This results in considerable administrative inconvenience in handling the budgets. If some method could be devised which would enable us to deal with a single agency for accounting purposes much of the present inconvenience could be avoided. Perhaps all of the various federal acts relating to appropriations of funds for agricultural extension and agricultural experiment station work could be centralized in Washington and transmitted in a single account.

We think federal aid to education and research is a logical and increasingly necessary part of our American struggle as a nation of forty-eight states and a union of one hundred and forty million people.

We have felt that the federal research program is defective in two respects. In the first place, the practice of financing research on an annual basis makes for difficulty in staffing and planning, and in co-ordinating research with the teaching program. Secondly, the policy of contributing to University overhead by means of a percentage of salaries frequently fails to recompense fully for the actual expense to the University.

The various projects supported by federal funds could, I believe, be more effectively carried on if there could be better co-ordination at

the federal level. Too many times the institutions do not know the activities for which funds are available. If there could be a clearing house for these activities the institutions could readily get the information which would permit more long-time planning than is at present possible.

You will note . . . under Federal Cooperative Extension a critical point in regard to the Soil Conservation Service, the Farmers Home Administration, and the Production and Marketing Administration. These operations of the federal government are a departure from the long-standing agreements as to state-federal relations in agricultural extension.

Even amongst our own staff there is disagreement relative to the matter of a clearing house in the federal government for all research projects involving state agencies. The more experienced men in the institution and men in charge of our largest operations are opposed to the idea of one federal office for the clearance of research projects. We feel this would be a tremendous obstacle to cooperation as we have known it in the past between the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges. The general opinion seems to be that there should be one clearing house in the state, however, although this would be hard to arrange.

. . . [The president feels] that when a National Science Foundation is operative, it will be more effective over the long haul than our present system of contracts with the armed services. He sees no dangers, however, in federal control as typified here. . . . The only obvious peril is that which is inherent in operating a University on current gifts from any outside donor. There is always the possibility that the donor's funds will give out or that the donor may tend to take the position that his beneficence naturally involves the imposition of conditions not originally contemplated. [This University] . . . like other institutions of the sort, has in recent years become somewhat dependent upon such outside donors, including the government. [It] has made a definite and consistent effort to see that the acceptance of such gifts did not leave the University dependent upon outside aid for the maintenance of what [the president] refers to as "core activities."

In general, the President has little misgiving about the support of research by specific grants or by the admission of competitively selected

students who are supported by individual scholarships. He would, of course, be opposed to the loss of independence which would result from the acceptance of government funds in the way of general subsidy rather than specific grants.

As is so often the case, Federal relations with educational institutions could I believe be improved by:

1. More liberal support on a grant-in-aid basis of certain activities such as improvement of physical plant, research and community service;

2. Better coordination or integration of Federal agencies in the field;

3. Allowing greater discretion to representatives in the field to make decisions.

There is obvious need for more uniformity in the provisions of research contracts. More specifically, the government research contracts which carry the right of government termination prior to the termination of the contract should carry indemnity provision for the contracting institution. We cannot recruit or hold competent scientific personnel under a contract which can be cancelled ahead of the termination date on relatively short notice. The patent provisions are not only not uniform but are objectionable to our institution and to many other state institutions.

It is difficult to see how the setting up of a coordinating agency at the federal level would assist the University in its dealing with Government. It is to be feared that the establishment of a central disbursing agency would interpose an opaque shield between the department head or the coordinator of research and his opposite number in the federal agency. The success to date of the University in the administration of contract research at least, stems largely from the good relationship which has been built up between department heads and individual scientists with their opposite numbers in the scientific sections of Government, and of the Coordinator with his opposite numbers in the contract sections.

The growing tendency of vocational education, particularly in the fields of agriculture and home economics, to overlap, duplicate, and take over activities formerly performed by the land-grant colleges is a matter of considerable concern to those interested in these fields in the

land-grant colleges. The agreement of 1928 between the Extension Service and the Vocational Board has been very unsatisfactory, and it is one-sided in favor of vocational education. . . .

The research sponsored by the Federal Government, directly or through subsidies, should be governed by uniform policy, particularly that which is carried on through land-grant colleges or state universities. There is a definite need for a clarification and coordination of the Federal-state relations in this field. It may be that in times of national and state emergencies it will be necessary for the Federal Government to establish a direct line of authority with local people, but emergency control should be the exception rather than the rule. Ordinarily a pattern could be adhered to in all cases.

During the emergency of the '30's, the Federal Government established action agencies, and through them, because most of them have been kept in operation, the pattern that existed for thirty years has been destroyed. It is a proper time to clear up the confusion, the duplication of effort, and the suspicion that exists in the minds of local people concerning Federal-state cooperative relationships.

The contacts of the Federal Government with state institutions of higher learning conflict among the different Governmental departments and agencies. In other words, there exists no pattern that is common to all departments and agencies in their contacts with state institutions. In normal periods, most state institutions, such as land-grant colleges and state universities, deal with approximately six agencies. During emergency periods it is difficult to estimate the number of agencies that the state institutions of higher learning have to deal with. Perhaps a pattern could be evolved for emergency procedures, and the plan for Federal-state relationships during normal periods should be simplified.

There are, of course, a number of problems that have arisen with all of the expansion of certain activities during the '30's, particularly in the USDA; however, such problems as we have encountered in this connection have not been with agencies represented on the campus. Rather they have been with agencies which have largely by-passed the land-grant colleges.

We are more or less disturbed, from time to time, by the seemingly needless red tape imposed upon us by the auditing branch of the government on the contract research programs.

We consider the financial policy of the U.S. Public Health Service to be superior to that of the other contract agencies, such as Naval Research, because the former pays its entire grant in a lump sum to the institution, whereas the latter pays only on monthly voucher after the expenditures have been made.

On the administrative side the picture is not quite so happy. A very considerable time of the staff of the Business Manager's office goes into negotiations of contract terms, patent clauses, overhead charges, accounting procedures, etc. The negotiation procedures often take many weeks, and in certain short-term contracts, it has actually been the fact that the contract was not signed until the work had been completed. The Office of Naval Research contracts, on the whole, have been the most satisfactory, but even there administrative negotiations are becoming more complex.

Our contracts with the Air Materiel Command, on the whole, are the most difficult to negotiate since clear lines of responsibility seem to be less well defined in that organization than in the others. . . .

From our point of view the crying need in Federal contracts is the simplification of the contract itself, its administrative provisions, and its auditing and accounting procedures. We have refused a number of contracts which contain unsatisfactory overhead allowances, patent clauses, or administrative procedures, and intend to stand firm on these matters.

We have no particular complaint that we need to deal with so many Federal agencies. While this complicates contractual procedures since each has somewhat different administrative procedures, there is also a healthy element of competition introduced which would not be present if all contracts were under a single Federal agency. We do believe a simpler and more uniform type of contract could be adopted with great advantage to all concerned.

There are many of our research programs supported by military agencies which would more appropriately be supported by some civilian agencies such as the proposed Science Foundation. We do not believe that Science Foundation contracts, however, will displace all military contracts since it is important that military agencies be in contact with university work. . . .

The chief needs are for simpler and more uniform contracts, simpler and more uniform administrative and auditing procedures, a more gen-

erous and more realistic approach to the problem of overhead allowances.

The fact that government research contracts are, in general, for terms of six months to two years, though frequently they are extended, does make it difficult for us to engage for this work some of the men whom we should like to have because they are desirous of more permanent employment. The government agencies could, of course, disrupt our research activities very much if they were suddenly to cancel all contracts or fail to extend them, but that certainly would not happen unless Congress, contrary to its present course, should become very parsimonious as to research. . . .

The contracting officers of the government agencies are not the same as the scientific officers, and it is sometimes a rather tedious process to work out satisfactory contract terms. There is what is probably an unavoidable tendency on the part of those who draft government contracts to be more and more meticulous and to make the contract more and more one-sided, as for example, the so-called "disputes clause," which provides that in the case of any dispute the head of the government agency shall be the sole umpire. I think that kind of thing is sort of inherent in our government organization, so that no matter how generous the terms of the contract, the government never deals with contractors on even terms.

There is probably little question but that the government gets more from its money when it supports research by a grant such as the United States Public Health Service can make for medical research, than when the support is through a fixed price contract or a reimbursement contract.

The lack of centralization of clearance for confidential or secret work should be remedied. At the present time, various government agencies have their own "personal security questionnaires," and it must be considerable expense to the government to have the same persons "cleared" again and again.

## III. Geographical Distribution of Public Health Fellowships and Research Grants

No effort has been made in this report to trace all federal funds for fellowships and research to the higher institutions by geo-

graphical location except in the case of public health. Certain of those research activities in the field of national defense logically should be done through the institutions most capably equipped and staffed for such research. In the field of public health, however, a good case may be made for more consideration of general geographical spread of activities, particularly in areas of the country in greatest need of public health services.

Table 40 on page 278 indicates geographical distribution of 186 public health fellows who were on duty in educational institutions in the states as of April 1948, and the distribution of $13,589,456 in 1,266 public health research grants to educational institutions in the states which had been approved for payment as of March 1, 1948.

A comparison of the per cent of population and the per cent of public health fellowships in the various geographical areas of the country will disclose that proportionately the Northeast and the Pacific Southwest states have had the larger number of fellowships. Of 39 added fellows who were on duty with other than educational institutions, 35 were in the Northeast. Fifty-six per cent of the 181 additional fellows who were not on duty or had terminated programs prior to April 1948 had been studying in the Northeastern states. In contrast, while the Southeastern states have over twenty per cent of the population they had under five per cent of the fellows on duty, and the Southwestern states, with over seven per cent of the population had no fellows studying therein. To be sure, individuals from these areas may have studied in other parts of the country. However, there has always been a tendency for students from a distance to locate subsequently in the vicinity of institutions where they do their graduate study and for educational institutions to draw a considerable portion of students from their immediate environs, leading to the conclusion that this geographical distribution of fellows may not be in the best interests of the total public health needs of the country. Of course, students should be encouraged to study at institutions which offer the best instruction. We merely offer the suggestion that, in the best interests of public health in regions

of the country where health needs may be greatest, strong institutions in this field should be encouraged in those areas. The spread of fellowships may be a factor in increasing the strength of a few good institutions at the expense of institutions which need to be made strong. Certainly the Southeastern and Southwestern states need individuals well trained in public health. More consideration may well be given to strengthening this program in higher educational institutions of these regions in recognition of the fact that, as stated above, higher institutions tend to draw students more heavily from their more immediate environs.

Similarly, but to a somewhat lesser extent, the amounts of money in public health research grants through educational institutions has favored the Northeast, while the Pacific Northwest, the Southwest, and the Southeast are in the least favorable positions. We readily recognize that research needs to be done in strong institutions. It is assumed, however, that a secondary purpose of public health research is to train adequate public health personnel to serve the various areas of the country. Research grants tend to help make strong institutions stronger, which is good. However, this very process widens the differential between the strong and the weak institutions, thus making the less favored institutions proportionately weaker. Naturally, the government wants to get the most for its public health research expenditures, which leads to the practice of using the stronger institutions. While this practice is commended, we believe that in the long run and in the interests of strong programs in public health in all areas of the country, more should be done to encourage and strengthen the public health research programs of higher institutions in all areas of the country.

## IV. Discussion

A reading of the excerpts from letters of college and university officials of the country, as presented previously, will leave little doubt but that these individuals believe the general effect of the

TABLE 40. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF FELLOWSHIPS AND RESEARCH GRANTS IN PUBLIC HEALTH THROUGH EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, SPRING 1948, AS RELATED TO POPULATION DISTRIBUTION *

| Region and state | Per cent of population | Per cent of fellowships | Per cent of grants | Per cent of money in grants |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Northeast | 30.23 | 44.17 | 38.20 | 41.95 |
| New England | 6.50 | 19.32 | 8.61 | 10.15 |
| Maine | 0.64 | — | — | — |
| New Hampshire | 0.38 | — | — | — |
| Vermont | 0.25 | — | 0.16 | 0.29 |
| Massachusetts | 3.29 | 7.49 | 5.93 | 7.90 |
| Rhode Island | 0.53 | 0.53 | 0.08 | 0.05 |
| Connecticut | 1.41 | 11.30 | 2.44 | 1.91 |
| Middle Atlantic | 20.09 | 18.35 | 21.47 | 22.90 |
| New York | 9.79 | 11.89 | 16.50 | 17.50 |
| New Jersey | 3.10 | 1.07 | 0.24 | 0.10 |
| Pennsylvania | 7.20 | 5.39 | 4.73 | 5.30 |
| Other | 3.64 | 6.50 | 8.12 | 8.90 |
| Delaware | 0.20 | — | — | — |
| Maryland | 1.55 | 6.50 | 5.76 | 7.40 |
| West Virginia | 1.29 | — | — | — |
| District of Columbia | 0.60 | — | 2.36 | 1.50 |
| Southeast | 20.59 | 4.82 | 14.63 | 12.80 |
| Virginia | 2.11 | 1.07 | 1.18 | 1.00 |
| North Carolina | 2.59 | 1.61 | 3.64 | 3.00 |
| South Carolina | 1.34 | — | 0.24 | 0.30 |
| Georgia | 2.26 | — | 2.68 | 2.70 |
| Florida | 1.67 | — | 0.16 | 0.10 |
| Kentucky | 1.93 | — | 0.63 | 0.50 |
| Tennessee | 2.15 | 1.61 | 3.64 | 2.50 |
| Alabama | 1.97 | — | 0.40 | 0.20 |
| Mississippi | 1.46 | — | — | — |
| Louisiana | 1.78 | 0.53 | 1.90 | 2.20 |
| Arkansas | 1.33 | — | 0.16 | 0.30 |

* Basic data from mimeographed reports: (1) *Research Grants and Amounts Approved for Payment by State and Institution*, March 1, 1948, Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency; (2) *Geographical Distribution of Fellows*, April 19, 1948, Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency. Population data from 1947 U.S. Census Bureau estimate of population excluding armed forces overseas.

TABLE 40 (*Continued*)

| Region and state | Per cent of population | Per cent of fellowships | Per cent of grants | Per cent of money in grants |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Middle States | 27.03 | 31.63 | 31.36 | 29.68 |
| Ohio | 5.43 | 4.84 | 4.82 | 3.60 |
| Indiana | 2.70 | 1.61 | 1.89 | 1.00 |
| Illinois | 5.74 | 7.49 | 8.06 | 9.50 |
| Michigan | 4.36 | 2.68 | 4.98 | 4.79 |
| Wisconsin | 2.28 | 7.49 | 2.85 | 1.80 |
| Minnesota | 2.02 | 4.84 | 4.18 | 4.49 |
| Iowa | 1.82 | — | 0.87 | 0.60 |
| Missouri | 2.68 | 2.68 | 3.71 | 3.90 |
| Northwest | 4.81 | 4.32 | 4.16 | 5.47 |
| North Dakota | 0.38 | — | — | — |
| South Dakota | 0.39 | — | 0.16 | 0.10 |
| Kansas | 1.34 | 1.08 | 1.33 | 0.89 |
| Nebraska | 0.91 | — | 0.07 | 0.03 |
| Colorado | 0.81 | 1.08 | 1.11 | 1.03 |
| Utah | 0.44 | 2.16 | 1.49 | 3.42 |
| Montana | 0.35 | — | — | — |
| Wyoming | 0.19 | — | — | — |
| Southwest | 7.41 | — | 3.30 | 1.97 |
| Oklahoma | 1.61 | — | 0.94 | 0.45 |
| Texas | 4.96 | — | 2.36 | 1.52 |
| New Mexico | 0.38 | — | — | — |
| Arizona | 0.46 | — | — | — |
| Pacific Northwest | 2.95 | 1.06 | 1.01 | 0.74 |
| Idaho | 0.34 | — | — | — |
| Oregon | 1.06 | 0.53 | 0.39 | 0.18 |
| Washington | 1.55 | 0.53 | 0.62 | 0.56 |
| Pacific Southwest | 6.98 | 14.00 | 7.34 | 7.39 |
| California | 6.89 | 14.00 | 7.34 | 7.39 |
| Nevada | 0.09 | — | — | — |

various federal programs is highly beneficial to their institutions. It is of interest to note that their comments are usually directed to federally sponsored research activities. Only occasionally will it be noted that mention has been made of the long-range social and educational implications of these activities. Institutions which only a few years ago were concerned that any federal moneys coming to them, or even to their students as in NYA, would eventually lead to federal control are now receiving relatively large sums of federal money for a variety of specialized activities and like it. They testify that they have seen few evidences of federal control and that they have remained free agents to determine their own futures in that no federal program has been thrust upon them against their wills. Most of them report that they see little danger in upsetting their curricular balance by the added emphasis on the natural sciences which federal research funds have given to these fields, although some few state that they must make added effort to gain funds from other sources to insure a balanced program. Others believe it would be unfortunate if they were to become too dependent upon any single source of funds for support of research or other general activities.

In the program for the education of veterans we believe there has been practically no federal domination of the curriculum or purposes of higher educational institutions. The primary federal contact here has been with the individual veteran, who has had a very free choice in selecting the institution which he desired to attend and the course he desired to take. Veterans have enrolled in all types of higher institutions, publicly and privately supported, church and secular, small and large, city and rural, rich and poor. They have undertaken studies in all areas of the curriculum. Thus the general cause of higher education in all types of institutions and in all areas of the curriculum has been served. Though no objective formula was used to spread the gains proportionately between institutions, geographical areas, or fields of study, the nature of the program was such that no formula was needed. Although this program has taxed the resources of many

institutions, basically it has led to a well-balanced general benefit to higher education. The major federal concern that veterans be well prepared to re-assume their places in civilian life is being accomplished. The higher institutions of the nation are being benefited while being the means of accomplishing a federal service.

The federal contract research program has apparently been a very vital and stimulating force in the higher institutions through which it has operated. It has made it possible for the colleges and universities involved to improve and retain staff members. It has produced much research essential to the physical well-being of individuals as well as for our general technical advancement. It is a definite factor in increasing our backlog of scientists essential to our general internal welfare as well as to our needs for national defense. It has rejuvenated the laboratories of many of our higher institutions.

We cannot agree, however, that the federal program of contract research, largely in the natural sciences, is as generally wholesome for higher education in this country as the veteran program. Of course, insofar as such research is necessary by the federal government it may well be done through educational institutions. All higher institutions should be willing to undertake federal research even to the extent of sacrifice to their general programs when the national defense interest is imperative. Moreover, support of pure research is in line with the aims and traditions of higher education. Although very little of specific controls go with the individual federal research programs, it is believed that the sum total of federal research devoted largely to the medical, physical, and biological sciences cannot do other than exert a subtle type of control of educational emphasis which should be noted.

We as a society are already behind in our ability to utilize the results of science for effective living, and in adapting our social and economic organization in an age of rapid technological change. It would belabor the point to comment at length on the lag of the social and economic fields of study behind the physical sciences. Suffice it to say that the federal government should

be concerned that it not be a party to an increased social lag. Our strength as a nation involves necessity of continued important research in all areas of study as they affect all phases of our lives, our associations, and the environment about us. It must be emphatically stated that we commend scientific progress and the research which makes this possible. If we curtail science to permit our understanding of human relations and other socio-economic matters to catch up, we are in the position of cutting off our noses to spite our faces. The important thing is that we retain balance in our emphasis. We fear that over the years, if the present federal emphasis on research only in the natural sciences is continued, the courage of the colleges and universities to retain balance may wane.

While the educational program for veterans spreads well over all higher institutions, this is not the case with contract research, nor should it be expected to be so in fields of immediate and vital national concern. With each of many government agencies and sub-agencies involved in these matters working directly with institutions of their own choice it is conceivable that we could strengthen certain institutions or institutions in certain geographical areas to the comparative detriment of higher education elsewhere. While some of this may be necessary in the interests of federal economy, we believe the question should be raised and an appraisal made. We have previously discussed this problem as it applies to the field of public health.

There is urgent need for over-all federal understanding of the problems involved. As now operated, there is no assurance that there will be effective co-ordination, even between separate departments which are dealing in the same areas of research. There needs to be more uniformity concerning standards for research. It is not good business either for the colleges and universities or for the federal government to permit a situation whereby a project turned down by one federal agency as being unworthy can be re-submitted to another agency and approved without knowledge of the prior refusal. The college and university presidents in their testimony previously presented give

ample evidence of lack of uniformity of federal policy in respect to such matters as contracts, payments, and audits.

Government research through colleges and universities is only a portion of the total federal research. A considerable part is done through industrial laboratories or by the agencies of the government in their own facilities. Thus the development of a comprehensive policy to assure co-ordination, over-all understanding, and absence of duplication and overlapping, is outside the scope of this report devoted to education. The well-being of the higher educational institutions of the land is involved in the development of such a comprehensive program.

A review of other federal activities as they operate through the regular colleges and universities of the country, as presented in Chapters 6 and 7, discloses that these institutions are utilized extensively for pre- and in-service training of government personnel and in the international interest. This type of federal activity has increased very rapidly in recent years. There is considerable evidence from the university and college presidents who were consulted in connection with this report that they consider the various programs in training of military officers to be desirable. Although they seldom mentioned the other programs in these classifications, we see no particular difficulties involved therewith, except that of the multiplicity of educational agencies and consequent varying federal policies. For instance, inquiry should be made into the reasons why the NROTC varies from the ROTC and Air ROTC in the matter of payment of tuitions and fees.

Is it essential that the U.S. Office of Education care for international exchange of certain classes of educational personnel while exchange of other types of educational personnel is cared for by the Department of State? The Office of Education should be the best-informed agency of the government in knowing of the educational resources of this country. It should be in a much better position than the Department of State to work out educational plans for visiting educators. It, through collection of materials over the years, is familiar with educational systems in foreign lands and consequently should be able to correlate the assign-

ments of educators to educational institutions within this country with an understanding of their foreign educational backgrounds. It has an extensive personal and professional relationship with our educational institutions. Thus it is believed that the U.S. Office of Education, in co-ordination with the Department of State, should be given more responsibilities in dealing with the international exchange of persons when educators or educational institutions are involved.

This discussion, thus far, has not entered the field of the need of over-all federal policy in matters which involve the colleges and universities of the country. Piecemeal federal legislation and the independent determination of policy by a multitude of federal agencies in programs which concern the higher institutions of the nation may, in the long run, constitute a more subtle and dangerous type of federal control than would be evident in a more enlightened and comprehensively developed approach. If there is one thing we do not want, it is a dominating federal department of education where all educational matters are controlled. But to go to the opposite extreme, as we are now doing and with the strong tendency to increase rather than decrease federal activities in higher education, certainly is not the appropriate solution. There is much need for the development of comprehensive federal policies and effective co-ordination as related to the federal activities which involve our colleges and universities.

After reviewing some of the problems involved, the President's Commission on Higher Education in 1948 came to the conclusion that it was

> . . . strongly of the opinion that, except for direct contract relationships, the activities of the Federal Government in relation to education should be coordinated through the U.S. Office of Education. It fully appreciates, however, that this is impossible in the immediate future and urges, as an interim step, the appointment of an interagency committee within the government, the Commissioner of Education to be chairman of such a committee.[4]

[4] Francis J. Brown, *President's Commission on Higher Education*, "Higher Education," published by U.S. Office of Education, Vol. IV, No. 13, March 1, 1948, Washington, D.C. (a digest of the report of the Commission).

Although we do not have much faith in the ability of inter-agency co-ordinating committees unless the agency responsible for the co-ordination holds at least a portion of the purse strings, we believe that this is the best solution which is immediately available. Co-ordination concerning specific functions or purposes is more effective than generalized co-ordination. An avenue must be opened for co-ordination and mutual appraisal of the problems involved. In addition, it is recommended that the U.S. Office of Education be under mandate to collect and publish statistical and other objective descriptive data on all educational activities of the federal government as they concern the regularly constituted school systems, colleges and universities of the country. This should be done at least biennially. We have faith that an informed public will eventually find solutions to its problems. Our concern is that, by lack of information of diversified educational activities tucked away hither and yon over the government, we may unknowingly permit practices to develop which may be inimical to the best interests of developing strong and independent educational institutions in the states. The Office of Education is already under Congressional mandate to collect

> such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information . . . as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

To insure that there will be no question about it, the mandate should be extended to include research and dissemination of information about the educational activities of the federal government as they concern the educational institutions of the country.

Eventually, if the type of federal educational agency which we envision is established we believe that it can be a vital correlating and service force in connection with the problems treated in this chapter.

Should the government in the future plan any new activities or extended expansion of present programs which support given areas of collegiate service or curriculum, we would strongly recom-

mend that instead there be substituted a program designed somewhat along the lines of the present education of veterans. For reasons stated earlier in this chapter, this program seems to hold the best promise of any activity yet devised by the government for strengthening higher education without undue control, either obvious or obscure. The selection of worthy and able students from all parts of the country who have considerable latitude in entering institutions of their choice and the studies which they pursue relieves the federal government of any complaint that it is showing favoritism to individual institutions, geographical areas, or to special phases of the curriculum. In such a plan federal funds should be granted to states by an equitable objective formula, but choice of institutions by students should not be limited by state lines. Within general standards as determined by Congress, states should be given responsibility for the administration of the program as it concerns selection of able and worthy students, certification of educational institutions where studies could be pursued, and general administration of the program. If such a program were undertaken, it is believed that considerable of the federal funds now going to individual institutions for research, fellowships, and other purposes might better be channeled through this one program.

# *Chapter 14.* CONCLUSIONS—FEDERAL POLICY AND STRUCTURE FOR EDUCATION

## I. Background

Of the vast array of public functions carried on at the various governmental levels none is basically more important to the well-being of the individual citizen or life in a democracy than education. The opportunity for an adequate education, geared to realistic needs of individuals and of our type of society, is fundamental to our concept of the value of the individual citizen and of his place and participation in democracy. Although education is a basic responsibility of states and should remain so for reasons pointed out in previous chapters, the federal government has a very natural and justifiable concern that educational programs within states be realistic and effective. Whether we think nationally in terms of civic or general literacy, defense needs, welfare of individuals, industrial effectiveness, or a host of other important considerations, we come to the conclusion that an adequate education in the states is essential. Quantitative and qualitative changes in this education are imperative from time to time in order to meet the needs of the changing conditions in our dynamic life.

Historically the federal government has had a very beneficial effect in encouraging states to make such changes. This is evidenced by a number of activities such as the early land grants which were the basis for the development of public school systems in new states, the encouragement of land grant colleges to meet the needs of a growing agricultural and industrial nation and to further democratize the opportunity for higher education, or the federal-state co-operative program for vocational education to

encourage high schools to be realistic in meeting the needs of new hordes of pupils who were flocking to them.

It is believed that decentralization of the basic responsibility for education to the states should be continued and that the federal activities in education need to be reviewed as they concern this principle. In the long run educational strength in initiative and leadership at the state level brings greater national strength in our form of government. It is our protection against using education as a force towards national partisan ends. In too many other countries we have recently observed the effects of nationalized educational systems used as a means to pervert democratic government and destroy individual and social freedoms. We do not want a federal educational system with its set uniformity which stultifies experimentation and subsequent progress.

However, if we assume that the federal government has no place in education we close our eyes to the history of federal participation in encouragement and support of education in the states. By and large these federal activities have been highly beneficial both from a state and a national point of view. If, in the future, education in the states is generally unresponsive to some very pertinent need of individuals in our type of society, certainly the federal government should retain the right to enter the gap by encouraging the states to undertake the responsibility. Or if certain poorer states after making a reasonable maximum effort are still unable to provide a minimum of education considered essential for general or civic literacy, the federal government may well offer assistance. Particularly in this day of mobile population and increasing importance of national civic participation the inability of a state to provide minimum educational essentials becomes a national interest.

While we are concerned that we not have a strict federal control of education in the states, nor general operation of a federal school system as in the NYA, it is believed that there is little of historical support for the contention that we have had undue direct control in the federal programs of education which have been conducted on a co-operative basis with states. Also many

of the federal programs which operate through states or institutions in states on other than a co-operative basis have no undue direct federal control. Witness the federal activities for the education of veterans, involving something over $2,800,000,000[1] in 1949. The major criticisms which are made concerning this program are leveled at too few federal controls, a situation largely corrected by the Eightieth Congress. The college and university presidents (see previous chapter) have testified that they note practically no evidence of harmful control in the rapidly increasing federal activities through their institutions. It is believed that the argument of federal control of education has often been used as a screen by those who oppose federal assistance on other grounds.

We believe the danger to education lies more in the uncontrolled spread of unco-ordinated and specialized educational functions over the government without regard to effective over-all educational development. Fearing a federal centralization of activities which concern the educational institutions of the land, we have taken the alternate course of diffusing federal activities in education to many of the departments and independent agencies of the government. The U.S. Office of Education, the one agency of the government which has traditionally championed the cause of general and balanced development of education under state responsibility for leadership and initiative, had available through it (for both its administration and its grants to states) approximately one per cent of the total federal funds in the fiscal year 1949 which went to schools and higher institutions in the states and students therein, to the operation or support of federal educational institutions and programs, or for the administration of these programs. If we add to this federal total the unclassified activities and those which do not concern regular educational institutions (category "B" activities), the percentage through the Office of Education would be considerably less. A review of a few other facts disclosed in this study will be pertinent.

Although we have been wary of any total financial figures in

[1] Unofficial estimate as of June 1948.

this report due to a number of factors pointed out in Chapter 2, we venture the opinion that in 1949 there was available something over $3,400,000,000 [2] of federal moneys for use in educational activities which directly affect our regularly constituted schools and higher institutions, operate through them, furnish similar education, or assist students in these schools and institutions. As has been pointed out earlier, however, this is not direct general federal aid to education although in some cases as a by-product general assistance may result. A very large majority of these funds are dedicated to war- or defense-incurred educational activities such as education of veterans, schools in defense or military areas, military research and pre- or in-service education of military personnel through universities, raising the educational level of members of the armed forces, and so forth. Only the relatively small sums of money available to the Office of Education for its internal use in research, service, and leadership for the general development of education at all levels and in all parts of the country (in the vicinity of one and a quarter million dollars in 1949) mirror the federal concern for the over-all general development of education in this country.

Except for this small general interest in education expressed through the Office of Education all federal activities which deal with the regularly constituted schools are for specialized activities such as promotion of special areas of the curriculum, specialized educational services, assistance to special geographical areas, promotion of special fields of research, education for special groups of individuals, support for special types of higher institutions, or pre- or in-service education of specialized government personnel. Although the educational institutions of the land are being utilized effectively for the promotion of many federal causes, and although in general the schools and colleges of the land believe that the effect of any individual activity is beneficial to their programs, the emphasis in its totality on specialized phases of education favoring technical and scientific areas cannot do otherwise than place the

[2] Includes in excess of $500,000,000 over official estimate for 1949 education of veterans appearing in Chapter 2. See Table 28, Chapter 7.

educational institutions of the land in a state of imbalance. This is the type of subtle indirect control which we believe more dangerous than the threat of direct federal control.

When we add to this situation a number of other factors we become even more concerned. The vast majority of these programs are administered by non-educational federal agencies which are legitimately interested in the promotion of their own points of view and often permit their customary mode of direct operations to undermine state educational authority. The latter is particularly true in respect to elementary and secondary education. Sixteen executive departments and independent agencies of the government through dozens of their sub-agencies conduct programs which concern elementary and secondary education. A previous chapter has told the story of the resultant by-passing of state departments of education, the overlapping of functions on the state or local level, and the effect on curricular balance. The federal government has probably been negligent in building balanced strength in state departments of education. Nineteen federal departments and independent agencies through scores of their sub-agencies have programs which concern higher education. It is not unusual for a university to operate federally sponsored programs with 25 federal agencies and sub-agencies, each dealing independently and each with its own policies and procedures. The effect of these activities is treated in the previous chapter.

It should not be assumed that the educational systems and institutions in the states have been ungrateful for these federal educational activities which concern them nor that these activities are considered to be other than valuable if not even essential in many cases. The complaint is that the federal government has never adopted an over-all policy in regard to its educational activities, that legislation has been piecemeal and programs uncoordinated. Lack of objective formulas in several programs for the distribution of funds or activities can permit abuses in favoritism to certain institutions or geographical areas. Aggressive groups or agencies have promoted their causes through education without regard to the over-all development of education. The

Office of Education has been kept so weak that it has neither the governmental status nor the facilities to be an effective force in developing or co-ordinating a comprehensive federal program or policy of education.

In addition to the educational programs of the federal government which concern the regularly constituted schools and educational institutions in the states there are a number of direct federal activities or responsibilities in education, such as the education of children of federal employees on federal reservations and properties, education of Indians and other native peoples in possessions and occupied areas, "civilian" education of members of the armed forces, the conduct of the military and maritime academies, the closely related programs for in-service training of governmental personnel, or education in the international interest. Particularly in respect to the first two types of these activities is there need of a definite federal policy.

Even a cursory review of the previous chapters will impress one with the fact that the federal educational interest pervades practically all of the major departments and independent agencies of the executive branch. In summary, this rather confused situation is primarily the result of four factors operating on the federal level:

(1) Federal activities in education have developed on a piecemeal basis. They represent activities supported by various groups and special interests and at various times during our history, and, there having been no over-all general federal policy relative to education, the result has been what might have been expected.

(2) Education is a powerful force and method by which governmental services and departmental or agency points of view can be made to reach the people. Also its resources can be used effectively to perform governmental functions. For these reasons it is only natural that a given department or agency should desire to use education to further the particular interest for which it has major concern.

(3) The government has found itself confronted with a number of direct educational responsibilities which could not be shifted

readily to the regularly constituted educational institutions in the states.

(4) The basic desire of the people, expressed through Congress, to limit federal control of education has resulted in a relatively subordinate federal educational agency and a spread of educational functions in other federal agencies in order to deter federal centralization of this function.

## II. Federal Policy in Education

It is the purpose of this section to present a few rather generalized statements of policy which will be helpful in overcoming some of the major complications and inconsistencies in our allocation of educational functions throughout the government and in our conduct of the activities involved.

### *A. Relationship to States and Educational Institutions in States*

1. Basic control of and responsibility for education should continue to be a state and local function.

2. Education is an essential service of major importance which must be well organized and well integrated to develop balanced activities stemming from needs of citizens and democracy. The federal government should recognize this rather than pursue a course of promoting unrelated educational specialties or special interests.

3. The nation, as well as states and localities, is vitally concerned that education be effective. Thus federal financial assistance and leadership of a noncoercive nature are often desirable. The federal government may use these for general assistance when needed, to promote desirable functions caused by changing national conditions and needs for which the regular schools and higher institutions in states may not have been sufficiently responsive in developing balanced services, or to equalize educational opportunity in states that are unable to provide proper education.

4. The goal of the federal government in its activities related to the regularly constituted schools and higher educational institutions in the states should be to develop self-reliance and self-sufficiency at the state or institutional level. When federal assistance is given, either through fiscal or leadership means, it should be to this end.

5. When resources are available in the regularly constituted schools and higher institutions in the states through which federal educational responsibilities or federal purposes can be accomplished, these should be utilized and provision made for their support. Except in critical emergency situations, however, this should be done with due consideration to the well-rounded and general welfare of schools and colleges in all parts of the country.

6. Grants in aid or other fiscal assistance to states for education should be as general as possible in nature consistent with the federal obligation and necessity for ascertaining that funds are used for the purposes for which intended. When the purpose is other than emergency in nature, impartial objective formulas should be utilized in distribution of funds.

7. All federal activities which concern elementary and secondary schools in the states should be the responsibility of the federal educational agency unless the evidence is clear-cut to the contrary. In the latter case there should be legally required and specified co-ordination between the agency involved and the federal educational agency to insure that operations are in accord with educational needs of schools and localities and that responsibilities are properly decentralized to state departments of education.

8. All federal educational activities which concern higher educational institutions in the states, except those which are of a critical emergency nature, must be consistent with the policy stated in 2 above and to this end there should be more dependence on the federal educational agency for development of and advisement concerning these activities. Until more effective federal policy and organization can be effected for these activities, inter-

agency co-ordination for activities which involve similar functions or purposes is necessary. For statement of problem and recommendations see Chapter 13.

*B. Special Federal Responsibilities for Education*

1. The federal government has a definite responsibility for assuring equal opportunity at public expense for elementary and secondary education of dependent children of federal employees who live on special federal properties, reservations, construction projects, federal overseas installations, and in occupied areas. Similarly this responsibility extends to cover situations where federally incurred activity creates an educational burden on communities which they cannot be expected to bear. One comprehensive federal policy should cover all of these situations. For statement of problem and recommendations see Sections III and IV of Chapter 5.

2. The federal government has a definite responsibility for assuring educational opportunity to Indians and other native peoples in territories and possessions. One comprehensive policy should cover these situations. For statement of problem and recommendations see Section V of Chapter 5 and Section V of Chapter 7.

3. As far as possible in connection with 1 and 2 above, use should be made of existing public educational facilities or if added facilities are needed they should be provided by the government to state or local public educational agencies. All arrangements should be cleared through state departments of education.

*C. Functions of the Federal Educational Agency (See Sections I and III of Chapter 10)*

1. The historical functions of (1) collecting statistics and facts to show the conditions and progress of education; (2) diffusing information to aid in the establishment and maintenance of effi-

cient school systems; and (3) otherwise promoting the cause of education throughout the country, should be retained with major emphasis. Among these three functions, the emphasis should be in the order listed.

2. The historical function should be expanded by Congressional mandate to include the biennial collection of research facts and objective description of all educational activities of the federal government which concern the regularly constituted schools and educational institutions of the country and the diffusion of this information. This should include research and diffusion of information concerning the effect of these activities on the regularly constituted schools and educational institutions in the states. See Chapter 13.

3. All federal activities which concern elementary or secondary schools in the states should be the responsibility of the federal educational agency unless the evidence is clear-cut to the contrary as stated in *A* 7 above. This should include matters involved with instruction and educational services. It should extend to the basic responsibility for the comprehensive program for dependent children or Lanham Act type of assistance.

4. The federal educational agency should be responsible for educational aspects of activities involving higher educational institutions which primarily concern more than the specialty of any individual non-educational department or independent agency. For instance, the ROTC is primarily concerned with the specialty of the Army and thus should remain there. On the other hand, the placement of exchange professors in American universities, treated in Chapter 13, should be vested in the federal educational agency. This policy would not deny to the Department of State its logical non-educational part in the program.

5. When, because of the exceptions noted in 3 and 4 above, a federal activity operates through or concerns the regularly constituted schools or higher educational institutions in the country with primary responsibility in other than the federal educational agency, the latter should have a well-defined co-ordinating or educational service function in connection therewith. The certifica-

tion of educational need by the Office of Education in the veterans educational facilities program of the Federal Works Agency is a case in point.

6. The federal educational agency should be a source for professional educational service to all agencies involved in educational matters whether having to do with in-service training or the promotion of their particular specialties. In general, duplication of professional educational personnel in non-educational departments and agencies should be avoided.

7. Cutting across several of these functions is that of strengthening responsibility, professional leadership, and educational initiative in schools and higher educational institutions in states, with particular reference to state departments of education. This should be a major function of the federal educational agency.

8. Also implied above, but needing greater stress, is the function of aggressive research, diffusion of information, and of promotion concerning educational activities or services badly needed but often neglected by states. Such a function, properly performed, should encourage states to assume responsibility and may avoid some of the piecemeal demands for specialized federal educational activities. It may result in federal programs which are much more effective. The current move for a labor extension service is a case in point. In Section II of Chapter 6 this proposal and other federal activities as related to the need of a comprehensive over-all federal policy in respect to adult education are discussed. This function may apply with equal force to such areas as need for school building construction and scholarships and fellowships. The federal educational agency should be the first to detect these trends and to offer solutions based on research findings. Leadership and service of this type should be important functions of this agency. Lack of aggressiveness by the Office of Education may have been a factor in absence of comprehensive federal programs and substitution of piecemeal activities in non-educational agencies.

9. The federal educational agency should be a clearinghouse for service and information to educators, educational institutions,

and scholars to insure that educational inquiries will be directed to the one or more federal agencies, libraries, or individuals in the government which have the best available expertness in respect thereto. This is discussed, in connection with the recommendation that an Educational Reference Service be established, in Section II of Chapter 10.

10. Closely allied with this is the function of the federal educational agency in respect to utilization of the rich resources of the federal government in a curricular service to schools. This has been discussed briefly in Section I of Chapter 5.

## III. Organization of the Federal Educational Agency

It is apparent from the materials presented previously that the U.S. Office of Education has not been properly implemented to perform the functions listed above. It has not been able to exert the educational leadership or render service either at the state or federal level, commensurate with the needs of education in states, the importance of education in our national life, or with the rapidly growing educational activities in the federal government. The frustrations which surround this Office and its personnel have been pointed out in Section IV of Chapter 10. Considering all factors, we have been fortunate in having even the modicum of effectiveness which has been developed in this Office. To some extent we believe this situation can be improved by proper organization which will better its professional status and give it more leadership stature.

The federal educational agency is not primarily an operating office. Its major function is professional research, service, and leadership in the interests of education in the states. Thus our first question must be, "What type of organizational structure will permit this agency to perform this function most effectively?" The question of what will look neat or streamlined in a federal organization chart is secondary. It is fundamental that this agency should be non-partisan both in its personnel and its point of view. It follows that every possible protection must be given

to assure that it not be subject to partisan politics nor to those who desire to build power for the sake of power. This agency, in its organization, should be consistent with what is considered good organizational practice on the state and local level.

### *A. A National Board of Education*

We believe that serious consideration should be given to the establishment of a National Board of Education. Such a board should be of a size small enough to assure compactness and not so large that it is unwieldy. Its members should be appointed for relatively long periods, and terms staggered in order to assure continuity in policy and to avoid "packing" by a President during any one term of office. Possibly twelve members, one appointed by the President each year for a twelve-year term, would meet these qualifications.

Extremely high-type non-partisan individuals with concern for the broad general welfare of society and individuals therein should be chosen. They should not be selected because they represent any type of political, occupational, social, racial, religious, educational, or other special interest, but rather because they are our outstanding citizens in their appreciation that education is a vital force in serving the needs of all individuals and all groups in our society. If, through this process, an individual were selected who happened to be a member of a labor organization, a member of a minority racial group, a Republican, a Democrat, a Protestant, a Catholic, a farmer, or an industrialist, we would not be concerned unless this were a consideration in making the appointment.

No two members should come from any one state and probably no member should be appointed from a state which has been recently represented on the board. A majority of the members probably should be laymen as contrasted with professional educators. Members should be removed from office only for cause specified in law.

Legal specification alone cannot insure the high type of board

which we believe necessary. It is essential that those groups and individuals in this country who have major concern for the general welfare of education be a vital force in public opinion to assure proper appointments. In the last analysis this is our best guarantee for proper selection of members to this board, as well as for many other improvements suggested in this report.

Board members should not be paid, except for per diem and expenses when performing their official business. It is assumed that they would meet regularly four to six times a year and on call. The board should be primarily advisory in nature, but by specific mandate of Congress could, and probably should, be given a number of responsibilities such as determination of policy within legislative limitations regarding approval of state plans for education as related to federal subsidies and the application of other standards which may be a consideration in making grants to states.

A number of functions of the old Federal Board for Vocational Education may well be assumed by this board. Certainly its most important function would be to advise the Commissioner of Education relative to needed research and promotional programs and to advise the federal educational agency in developing its services in performing the functions outlined in Section II C above. Its counsel should be a leavening force concerning educational matters in both the legislative and executive branches. It should review federal policy in education from time to time to ascertain that the best interests of states and nation are being advanced by federal educational activities.

A number of considerations, some of which have already been discussed, follow:

1. The potential danger of using the federal educational agency for partisan purposes or for the promotion of ideologies or educational programs inimical to the best state and national interest would be minimized by the National Board of Education. As it now stands the Commissioner of Education can use his office, or, if he resists, his superiors can use his office, for improper or unwise purposes. The recent controversy between the Federal

Security Administrator and the Office of Education at least demonstrates the potentialities of this situation.[3] Education can be used to pervert the mind of a nation as has been done in certain other countries. Although this has not happened here, we must reduce the possibility that it could happen.

2. At both state and local level we insist that educational policy within constitutional or legislative limits be developed by a board of representative citizens. It is not logical that, at the one place where we fear undue control of education, we should neglect at least an opportunity for review of policy by such a group.

3. If the federal government is to encourage greater strength in state departments of education and proper organization therein, it must set an example for such departments. We have suggested a small grant to state departments of education which meet very minimal federally determined standards. (See Chapter 12.) If this is done, or even if it should not be done, certainly the major function of encouraging proper organization to bring educational strength and initiative in states cannot be effective if the state finger of scorn can be pointed at federal educational organization.

4. The federal government requires state boards for vocational education, yet on the federal level we have abolished such a board, leading to situations which at least are alleged to have been federally "masterminded." Particularly in important matters of federal determination of policy or standards within limits as prescribed by Congress, of discretionary power, or of state plan approval or disapproval the decision should not rest on the judgment of one individual. Such violates a federal requirement in states as well as our best tradition of educational administration on state and local level.

[3] See *Congressional Record*, August 2, 1948. Vol. 94, No. 123, 80th Cong., 2nd sess., p. 9788; and *Investigation of the Federal Security Agency*, Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Appropriations, House of Representatives, 80th Cong., 2nd sess., on the Department of Labor–Federal Security Agency Appropriation Bill for 1949, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, August 1948.

5. The development of balanced federal educational leadership and service to counter the present federal imbalance, as described in Chapter 11 and elsewhere in this report, is a project which needs our best and most objective minds. It should not be entrusted to one individual regardless of the amount of wisdom he may possess. This is not the American way, particularly in education. We have no illusion that all of the federal problems in the field of education will be resolved by this report. Problems of the type indicated herein will be with us for a long time. It is essential that we have a continuing body of representative citizens which will be alert to see that the educational staff search out these problems, discover their significance, and make constructive suggestions relative to their solution.

6. The federal educational agency must be alert to educational problems and difficulties from the grass roots of education in the states. Although the professional staff in education of this agency will know of these problems from professional sources at state and local levels, it is assumed that this staff should also know of problems from the point of view of the educational layman. The board should help to keep it alert in this respect.

7. Educational administrators are accustomed to acting as executives to lay boards. They have learned the worth of such boards through training and experience. They resist being placed in positions where political considerations or one-man administrative control can exert undue influence over education. It is believed that a National Board of Education will enhance the opportunity to obtain strong professional educational leadership at the head as well as in subordinate positions in the federal educational agency.

Thus we consider a National Board of Education an essential first in our re-organization of education on the federal level. It should be without administrative functions, except as such may be given to it by specific act of Congress. It should safeguard the state and national educational interest. It should revitalize the federal educational agency in its function of service to education in the states. The board should help the agency gain pro-

fessional stature in the government so that it may better assume its position as an integrating and service force for the various educational activities of the federal government. It should help build balance into the federal educational activities as they affect the schools and higher institutions of the country.

It is realized that, in spite of safeguards, appointments might be made with political considerations in mind. Again, public opinion is our best protection. During one term of office a President would be very unlikely to appoint a majority of the board. The public usually expresses itself more quickly and more vehemently concerning abuses in education than on other public matters. The mere whisper of scandal in school affairs will usually bring action from a community which may tolerate corruption elsewhere in its government. When an educator goes wrong it usually makes the headlines. Education is very close to the general public concern. Thus it is believed that a President would be diligent in making appointments.

Should Congress or the Senate have any part in confirmation of appointments? Although we are inclined to believe there will be less political consideration if the President has the final power of appointment, we recognize that this is contrary to much precedent. In the field of education it is probable that public opinion would operate more quickly and more positively on the President alone than on the President and Senate or Congress jointly.

Even though the board's functions be primarily advisory, its caliber would tend to give it strong influence. Its closeness to public opinion in the states would be mirrored in its advisement and in its relay back to the people of anything contrary to the best public interest. This should result in better federal policy and administration, and a quick check on faulty federal conduct of educational activities.

Would this board tend to amass power or otherwise exert undue control over education? The potentialities of this type of abuse are considered to be much less than in the present placing of complete responsibility, without even advisory check, on administrative officials who can be politically appointed and in a po-

litical chain of command. Certainly the Congress which brought such a board into being could regulate or even abolish it if its functions are abused.

There is no panacea in organization. We have tried another type of organization and its record of achievement has been disappointing. A National Board of Education, even for those who may consider it only an experiment, is a venture which has so much in its favor and is so much in the American educational tradition that it is worthy of a fair trial.

### *B. The Commissioner of Education*

The commissionership of education should be a professional career position. It should challenge the caliber of man drawn to our most responsible positions of educational administration at state, local, or institutional level. That it is only by chance that such an individual can now be drawn to this position is indicated in Section IV of Chapter 10. What can be done to rectify this situation?

There are many valid arguments in favor of appointment of the Commissioner by the National Board of Education. While we prefer this method of appointment we must admit certain justification for the belief that, if the President is to be responsible for the proper operation of the executive branch, he must select those who administer its activities. An alternate plan by which the President appoints from a panel of nominees submitted by the Board may be an appropriate meeting-ground between these two points of view. This has the potential disadvantage of change in administration of the federal educational agency with each change in the presidency. The position of Commissioner of Education must be non-partisan in nature and every legal safeguard should be erected against the abuse of this principle. Again, public opinion concerning this matter will be a greater protection against abuse than matters which may be written into law. It is believed that appointment should be for an indefinite tenure determined by good behavior and effective administration.

### *C. Internal Organization of the Federal Educational Agency*

A number of matters which should be taken into consideration in the internal re-organization of the federal educational agency have been discussed in Sections II and III of Chapter 10. These will not be repeated here, particularly as they are not the major concern of this report. Recommendations and suggestions concerning the transfer of certain activities to the Office and the development of needed co-ordination have been presented in Chapters 5 through 13.

## IV. Location of Federal Educational Agency in the Executive Branch

The determination of the location of the federal educational agency should be governed largely by its functions and its modes of operation. Where can it best perform its function of research, service, and leadership in the interest of education in states? Where can it best act as an integrating and service agency for the dispersed educational activities in the various departments and independent agencies of the federal government? Where can it operate most effectively without partisan influence or undue control of education in states? Where is it most likely to develop professional status commensurate with its importance?

There are three feasible places in the government where the federal educational agency could be located. First, a federal department of education with a Cabinet officer at its head could be established. Such a recommendation was made by the National Advisory Committee on Education appointed by the President which rendered its report in 1931. This possibility is discarded primarily because it could subject education to political control. Other considerations in refusal to consider this solution seriously involve its incompatibility with good state and local educational organization, the needless increase of major governmental departments, the assumption of undue centralization of educational functions, and the regard for retaining basic control and responsi-

bility for education in the states. While education would gain governmental status by such a move, it is believed that too high a price would be paid for this status.

The second location, in a federal Department of Health, Welfare and Education, has more to commend it. In support of such a department it has been pointed out that all of these functions are concerned with the welfare of the individual, the family, or the community. It follows the principle of centralization of functions by purpose. This would be a logical outgrowth of the present Federal Security Agency. By forming a united front it is assumed that better presentations of over-all fiscal and other needs could be made to the President and to the Congress. Through the prestige of a Secretary in the President's Cabinet each concern of the Department could be advanced more effectively and interdepartmental co-ordination implemented. Each of the services involves relationships with states usually in the form of grants in aid, thus making for considerable compatibility in methods of operating. Efficiency and economy should result from such an organization.

On the negative side, and as related primarily to education, such an organization also has certain disadvantages:

(1) The much needed National Board of Education would not easily fit into the structure.

(2) The Secretary, and sub-secretaries if such were in the picture, would almost of necessity be political appointees who could subject education to political pressures. While such pressures would be damaging to the field of health, the damage to education could be much worse. Education deals with ideas in the minds of individuals, while health is concerned with his physical well-being. There are not different Republican, Democratic, or even Socialist Party cures for malaria, but there are different party approaches to influence the thinking of an individual.

(3) The other agencies of the proposed Department do not have the clear-cut tradition and record of placing responsibility on their counterparts in the states as has the U.S. Office of Education.

(4) Education has more in common with activities of several other departments of the government than with activities of the proposed department. Witness the educational activities of the Department of Agriculture, Atomic Energy Commission, Army, Navy, and the Veterans Administration, all of which have larger programs which concern elementary, secondary, or higher education than the Office of Education itself.

(5) The great need of developing the federal educational agency as a professional servicing and integrating force for all educational activities of the government, the large majority of which are outside the proposed Department, has been pointed out. This may be used to support independent status rather than inclusion in a department.

(6) There are those who fear that the interest of the present Office of Education would be overlooked as its activities are relatively small as compared with rapidly expanding activities, such as social security. Major consideration in determination of policy and allocation of budget would naturally favor the larger operating activities. They see little chance of obtaining a departmental secretary who has the vision or ability to weigh decisions which involve such diversified and specialized fields as would be represented in the Department. A professional educator probably should not head such a Department, as this associates education with partisan politics. It is also unlikely that such an individual would be appointed. The probability of either a professional medical or welfare individual in this position would tend to strengthen the special field of his interest possibly at the expense of education.

(7) There are others who believe that association of education with these welfare activities would give to education the connotation of charity and social service, an implication inconsistent with the important place of education in the life of a democratic nation.

(8) It is the belief of many that the departmental structure adds a needless administrative level (or possibly two levels if subsecretaries are included) to hinder direct representations to the President, to the Congress, or to the people in matters which in-

volve education. Difficulties in this respect recently evident in the Federal Security Agency could easily become more aggravated in the departmental structure.

(9) The too prevalent tendency of a department to desire to amass power and control is antagonistic to federal policy as it should concern education.

(10) The proposed Department to include education is contrary to accepted and best practice for organization of education on the state and local level.

(11) In total, these factors might reduce public confidence in the federal educational agency.

The third possible location for education is in a separate independent agency. Practically all of the objections which have been raised in connection with incorporating the federal educational agency in a Department of Health, Welfare and Education are minimized or eliminated by such an organization. The National Board of Education would fit well into this plan. The opportunity for partisan controls and abuse is reduced. It may be in a better position to work with, integrate, and serve educational functions in other agencies of the government. It would be less likely to come under non-educational domination. There is no implication that its services are involved with charity and social service. It should be able to make its representations to the President and to Congress directly without dilution of the professional education point of view by intervening administrators. If there were any tendency to attempt to amass power and exert undue controls it would be in a position where responsibility could be easily established and proper corrective measures taken immediately by the President or the Congress. Such an organization is in line with accepted and best educational practice on state and local levels. Potentially the plan seems to offer greater chance of developing public confidence in the federal educational agency. Professional competency in leadership and service should be able to develop more effectively.

But the argument is not all in favor of the independent agency. There is a substantial record of professional competency in a

number of bureaus within departments. The record of competency within independent agencies has not always been good. The multiplying of governmental agencies reporting directly to the President is not good administrative policy unless the Office of the President is re-organized to meet this contingency. Possibly a Cabinet officer might have more prestige and political ability in presenting needs of the agency to the President and the Congress than would the Commissioner of Education. The independent agency might tend to become too submerged or dissociated from the normal stream of responsibility of the executive branch.

In the last analysis the decision concerning the location of the federal educational agency in the framework of the government will have to be made in consideration of the total anticipated reorganization of the executive branch, a matter beyond the scope of the report. If education is thought of as "just another governmental function," the question can be answered in more routine manner. If, however, education is thought of in its proper context of importance in the life of a democratic nation, its relationship and functions relative to education in states, its need for protection from partisanship, and the necessity for integration and service among the various educational activities throughout the government, we realize the urgency of giving special attention to the location of the federal educational agency. It may justify special treatment and exception to criteria developed for the more normal operating agencies. It is believed that the balance of all the various arguments warrants giving serious consideration to the establishment of a separate independent agency.

If, in spite of what seems to be a majority of evidence in favor of the independent agency, it is considered essential to place the federal educational agency in a departmental structure, the question arises as to how the National Board of Education could fit into this plan. It is believed that under no circumstances should this board be sacrificed for the purpose of merely making the structure look neat. If the board were placed at the bureau or agency level it would be so submerged that it might have little or no influence

at the department level. It is thus suggested that the board might better protect and foster education if it were advisory to the Secretary of the department, in which case the Commissioner of Education might well be its Secretary or otherwise be delegated responsibility for its agenda and similar matters. It is apparent that neither of these solutions for locating the board is as satisfactory as would be possible in the independent agency where no such problem would be encountered.

It must be stated again that all the problems of the federal government in respect to education will not be solved by the recommendations and suggestions of this report. If it can set a general framework for federal policy concerning education and an organization which can function within this policy, we are then in a position where progress is possible. Beyond this the future will have to care for most of the needed reforms. Moreover, it would be a mistake to expect the federal educational agency, which through little fault of its own has played a very minor role in the federal educational enterprise, to accept suddenly the full responsibility for solutions to all of the problems treated in this report. In a sense the federal educational agency will have to win its right to be the integrating and service force, or the operating agency for added activities when justified, within the government. Its major role of research, service, and leadership to strengthen educational responsibility and initiative in states is an increasing challenge. Implementing the Office so that it can grow in stature and service to perform these functions is necessary. The alternative is still further chaos in federal educational activities and potential disregard for the best interests of schools and educational institutions in states.

## *Appendix A.* LETTER FROM THE LIBRARIAN OF CONGRESS

May 21, 1948

Dear Dr. Allen:

I appreciate the occasion which your letter of May 10, 1948, offers me for providing you with a statement regarding the activities carried on by the Library of Congress which have reference to education, as well as certain comments relating to more effective organization of library services at the Federal level.

I. Activities of the Library of Congress specifically connected with education:

a. General

Although the Library of Congress, which was founded in 1800 and now comprises collections of some 25,000,000 books, pamphlets, maps, manuscripts, etc., is the principal library of the Federal Government and the largest library in the United States, it is not an educational institution in the sense that it has any immediate responsibilities connected with organized instruction. Nevertheless, it has manifold relationships with educational institutions, and as an agency providing materials for research it has of course considerable importance, both direct and indirect, in the general field of education.

The Library's immediate statutory responsibility toward educational institutions rests upon a law of 1892 (20 USC 91) which requires that its facilities be made available to scientific investigators, duly qualified individuals, students and graduates of any institution of learning throughout the United States. The Library has interpreted this obligation as requiring the freest possible public accessibility of its resources consistent with the requirements of Congress—to which it owes a first responsibility—and with the needs of the other Government agencies. This accessibility is effected not only through the usual reading room service which is provided to visitors to the Library but also through such other services as:

Assignment of special study-room or study-table facilities to persons conducting extended investigations;

Interlibrary loan service;

Photoduplication service;
The supply of bibliographical information in response to inquiries by mail;
The preparation and publication of bibliographies and guides to special collections and to special subject materials;
The maintenance of a national union catalog.

The use of these facilities by educational institutions and by their graduate students and faculties is extensive, and statistics of this use are available should they be desired.

*b.* Relationships with educational institutions in the Washington area

With respect to institutions in the immediate vicinity of Washington the Library stands in an even closer relationship than is described above. The existence of the Library has often proved an incentive for attracting students to Washington; students of local institutions have free use of the reading rooms; the libraries of these institutions are heavy borrowers; and the borrowing privilege is generally extended to members of their faculties.

*c.* Collections and services in connection with the literature of education; relationship with the United States Office of Education

The Library's collections, not only of the literature of education *per se*, but also of the numerous ancillary subjects, as well as of textbooks and other educational media, are of course large. At the same time, the Office of Education necessarily requires a considerable library collection for use in its own operations. In order to avoid duplication of effort between the two agencies, an arrangement has been effected by which distinction of functions is recognized. The Library of Congress undertakes, moreover, to acquire materials, upon recommendations of members of the Office of Education staff designated for that purpose, which the Office would not acquire for its own working collections.

While the Library of Congress has not organized any special public service in connection with its collections on education, a small bibliographical unit in this field has been planned. Also, a member of the staff of the Legislative Reference Service is assigned to the handling of inquiries in the field of education in behalf of Members and Committees of Congress. Such inquiries usually involve the legislative aspects of education, and several publications have been issued comprising their results.

II. Activities of general assistance to learning and research:

*a.* General

Interest in the educational importance of the Library of Congress must, however, extend beyond the specific services mentioned above.

The Library's basic activities are concerned with the collection, organization for use, and making available of informational materials in recorded form. As a by-product of these basic activities there result certain services of considerable usefulness in the wide field of general learning and research.

The numerical size and extent of the Library's collections, which place it among the largest institutions of the kind in the world, have already been mentioned. For the organization of these collections the Library has evolved a number of technical procedures, the usefulness of which is not limited to their application to its own collections. For example, through the purchase of the Library's catalog cards, many thousands of institutions, both in the United States and abroad, cheaply secure the results of its cataloging which in turn rest upon the elaboration of extensive systems of classification and subject-analysis which few institutions could afford to maintain for themselves. The result is not only to reduce costs to individual institutions, but also to secure a high degree of uniformity and standardization of practice in library techniques. A number of libraries contribute, by filling in for books which the Library of Congress does not have, to extend the usefulness of the system.

*b.* Within the Federal Governmental system

The Library of Congress is an agency of the Legislative branch, having as its primary obligation the service of Congress. But its facilities have been accorded by law to agencies in the Executive branch of the Government and to the courts. To the extent that this does not interfere with the service to Congress this is of course wholly desirable, and the other agencies of the Government make use of all of the services which are discussed in the preceding paragraphs. While a number of agencies of the Executive branch have libraries which in particular fields are outstanding (notably the Army Medical Library and the Department of Agriculture), the Library of Congress possesses the collections of general usefulness which are needed to reinforce the collections of the individual agencies. With their increased dependence upon printed sources of information, the recourse of the Executive agencies to the Library of Congress has tended also to increase. A considerable number of study-room assignments are continuously made to representatives of Federal agencies. In a number of cases, too, these agencies have transferred funds to the Library of Congress to execute projects involving the use of library materials. In spite of the fact that there are no administrative arrangements for the organization of library services on a Government-wide basis, nevertheless there has been to a much

greater extent than might perhaps have been expected an avoidance of duplication of collections, a coordination of effort and efficient utilization of resources.

III. Comments:

In its relations with the educational institutions and libraries of the country the Library of Congress does not perceive any desirability for change. Its position at present is that of a principal library which performs certain central services and asserts a certain leadership, but one which is armed with no authority and which exerts no supervision. The interests of research would doubtless be advanced if certain of its central services could be extended or improved, and this view is supported by various studies of the subject (notably Dr. Carlton B. Joeckel's report entitled *Library Service*, prepared for the President's Advisory Committee on Education in 1938,[1] and the report of the Library of Congress Planning Committee in 1947[2]). However such an extension should come as the result of the natural demand of the users, and not as a result of administrative pressure.

With respect to library service at the Federal Governmental level, however, certain improvements may be desirable. Both of the reports cited in the preceding paragraph insist upon the necessity for some method of systematizing the library activities of the various agencies of the Government so as to derive from them the maximum benefit to Governmental activities generally. There is not as yet, for example, a currently maintained union catalog of the holdings of the Federal libraries, nor any procedure for assuring the most effective use of the foreign publications secured by the various agencies. While provision is made for the expenditure of many hundreds of millions of dollars in research, no provision is made for the utilization of the reports resulting from this research to the general benefit either of all the Federal agencies or of the American public in general. The assignment of particular library projects to the Library of Congress on funds transferred from other agencies is usually a matter of pure accident, and does not result from any general, broad, overhead planning.

The fact that the Library of Congress is in the Legislative branch has hitherto seemed to interpose a barrier to such planning, but it does not appear that the barrier need be insuperable. It is possible that the device of a Federal library council, suggested in both of the reports cited above, is too formal a method to use in connection with services which, as is the case with the various Federal libraries, have very varying characteristics and very different levels of organizational status in the several agencies. The solution to

[1] Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938.

[2] Printed as an appendix to the Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress, 1947.

the problem of Federal library planning may possibly be found in a less formal arrangement which might nevertheless make use of the special information regarding organizational plans which is possessed by the Bureau of the Budget.

Sincerely yours,
Luther H. Evans
Librarian of Congress

Dr. Hollis P. Allen
Specialist in Education
The Brookings Institution
722 Jackson Place, N.W.
Washington 6, D.C.

## *Appendix B.* LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE ASSISTANT TO THE COMMISSIONER, U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION, FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY

Federal Security Agency
U.S. Office of Education
Washington 25, D. C.
July 8, 1948

Dear Dr. Allen:

I am attaching herewith three tables which we have compiled which will give you in some measure an idea of the scope and extent of our service activities for a selected period; namely, August 1, 1947 to May 1, 1948. Table *A* indicates the number of service contacts made by representatives of the U.S. Office of Education at Office of Education expense. Table *B* indicates the number of service contacts made by the U.S. Office of Education representatives at other than Office of Education expense. Table *C* shows the incidence of 268 cases in which it was impossible to fulfill requests for service made of Office of Education specialists.

It will be observed that the tables are broken down by the Divisions into which the Office is divided, and that the States are grouped into five categories. A copy of the regional grouping is attached (Item *D*).

Table *A* shows the geographical distribution of services rendered in 918 instances in which the cost of service was defrayed from appropriations available to the U.S. Office of Education. Table *B* shows the geographical distribution of 261 instances in which services were rendered by U.S. Office of Education specialists, the costs of which were defrayed from sources other than Office of Education travel appropriations. I should like to point out that for a number of years the Office of Education has had in the language of its appropriation acts authority to render service to State, local, private, and other Federal governmental agencies and to accept reimbursement for such services from these sources. This authority is quite unusual in the government and represents a realization on the part of the Congress that the field of education is quite different than other fields which are served by government agencies. This practice would, of course, be quite inappropriate in other government departments. The authority to accept reimbursement from other sources than our own appropriation has enabled the Office of Education to extend the services of its specialists much more widely than would be the case if we were limited to our own appropriation.

The data presented in Tables A and B should be utilized with great caution since in many instances a large number of States or localities are assisted from one service contact. For example, a meeting of educators from seven midwestern States may be held in Chicago. Chicago is, of course, listed as the service contact. Basic data is not available to us upon which we can present an extended analysis of the amount to which one would have to expand the data in Tables A and B in order to show a full picture. It is our policy, naturally, to draw together as large a group of people as we can in order to conserve the time of our specialists and to conserve travel funds.

I should like to have it understood that Table C represents a sample only of the requests which we have been unable to fulfill. The cases which make up the total 268 instances which are tabulated in Table C are available to us in official correspondence. A great many more instances occur in which requests for service have been declined orally or in ways which are not easily known. Furthermore, it is well known that in large areas the Office of Education does not have specialists available and, therefore, cannot render service, and that the specialists we do have are overloaded and frequently unavailable. Educators, therefore, frequently refrain from requesting service because of their feeling that it cannot be made available. I am attaching a tabulation of the 268 cases which appear in Table C (Item E) showing the reasons given for the inability of the Office to fulfill these requests. In many cases they are the normal reasons which might occur if we were fully staffed in all Divisions. In other cases it is obvious that it is due to our lack of staff.

I believe that too much stress should not be placed upon the geographical distribution of services as indicated herein. It is, however, the only method we can present in analysis based on data now available to us. We do not have sufficient data to break our services down on a functional basis, such as Instructional Problems or Science Problems. Further qualification is necessary on the basis of distribution of population and relative maturity of educational leadership. Some of the States which have very fine school systems have very weak State Departments of Education. The distribution of population, therefore, does not altogether serve as a guide to the amount of service requests that should be expected from a given section of the country.

If there are further questions concerning the materials which we have referred to above, please feel free to call upon us.

Sincerely yours,
Ralph C. M. Flynt
Executive Assistant to the Commissioner

Dr. Hollis P. Allen
Brookings Institution
722 Jackson Place, N.W.
Washington, D.C.

*Enclosure 1*

TABLE A. SERVICE CONTACTS MADE BY THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION REPRESENTATIVES AT U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION EXPENSE

AUG. 1, 1947 TO MAY 1, 1948

| Groups of states | Divisions of the Office of Education | | | | | | | | | Total | Per cent of total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Elem. Ed. | Sec. Ed. | Voc. Ed. | Higher Ed. | School Admin. | Aux. Serv. | Intern'l Ed. | Gen. Admin. | Central Serv. | | |
| Middle Atlantic | 30 | 43 | 113 | 11 | 42 | 23 | 14 | 37 | 5 | 318 | 35 |
| New England | 9 | — | 36 | — | 3 | — | 1 | — | — | 49 | 5 |
| South Eastern | 8 | — | 61 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 1 | — | — | 80 | 9 |
| North Central | 35 | 21 | 107 | 4 | 6 | 14 | 7 | 12 | 1 | 207 | 23 |
| West of the Mississippi | 26 | 16 | 192 | 1 | 15 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 264 | 28 |
| Total | 108 | 80 | 509 | 19 | 71 | 46 | 26 | 52 | 7 | 918 | 100 |
| Per cent of total | 10 | 9 | 56 | 2 | 8 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 1 | — | 100 |

*Enclosure 2*

TABLE *B*. SERVICE CONTACTS MADE BY THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION AT OTHER THAN U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION EXPENSE

AUG. 1, 1947 TO MAY 1, 1948

| Groups of states | Divisions of the Office of Education | | | | | | | | | Total | Per cent of total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Elem. Ed. | Sec. Ed. | Voc. Ed. | Higher Ed. | School Admin. | Aux. Serv. | Intern'l Ed. | Gen. Admin. | Central Serv. | | |
| Middle Atlantic | 24 | 19 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 5 | — | 1 | — | 71 | 27 |
| New England | — | 1 | 5 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 6 | 2 |
| South Eastern | 6 | 12 | 6 | 3 | 41 | — | — | 1 | — | 69 | 26½ |
| North Central | 12 | 18 | 9 | 4 | 16 | 8 | — | 2 | — | 69 | 26½ |
| West of Mississippi | 6 | 8 | 18 | 1 | 11 | 2 | — | — | — | 46 | 18 |
| Total | 48 | 58 | 44 | 15 | 77 | 15 | — | 4 | — | 261 | 100 |
| Per cent of total | 18 | 22 | 17 | 6 | 29 | 6 | — | 2 | — | — | 100 |

*Enclosure 3*

TABLE C. UNFILLED REQUESTS FOR SERVICE CONTACTS BY U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION

AUG. 1, 1947 TO MAY 1, 1948

| Groups of states | Divisions of the Office of Education | | | | | | | | | Total | Per cent of total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Elem. Ed. | Sec. Ed. | Voc. Ed. | Higher Ed. | School Admin. | Aux. Serv. | Intern'l Ed. | Gen. Admin. | Central Serv. | | |
| Middle Atlantic | 31 | 10 | 17 | 9 | 2 | 7 | — | 33 | 1 | 115 | 43 |
| New England | — | 3 | 5 | 3 | 1 | — | — | 2 | — | 14 | 5 |
| South Eastern | 2 | 4 | 12 | 5 | 2 | 1 | — | 3 | — | 29 | 11 |
| North Central | 9 | 11 | 19 | 5 | — | 3 | 3 | 3 | — | 53 | 20 |
| West of Mississippi | 16 | 2 | 23 | 7 | 2 | 1 | — | 6 | — | 57 | 21 |
| Total | 58 | 30 | 76 | 29 | 7 | 12 | 3 | 52 | 1 | 268 | 100 |
| Per cent of total | 22 | 11 | 29 | 11 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 19 | — | — | 100 |

*Enclosure 4*

ITEM *D*

For purposes of greater specificity the tables are broken down by divisions within the Office. The states are grouped into five categories:

1. *Middle Atlantic*–including Washington, D.C., and New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia.

2. *New England*–including Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

3. *South Eastern*–including North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida.

4. *North Central*–including Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Kentucky, Illinois, and Wisconsin.

5. *West of the Mississippi*–including Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, Nevada, and California.

*Enclosure 5*

ITEM *E*

The primary reasons for the Office of Education not making specific service contacts are as follows:

| | *Number* |
|---|---|
| 1. Unimportance or inappropriateness of activity | 16 |
| 2. Lack of Office of Education funds | 63 |
| 3. Conflict in specialist's schedule | 97 |
| 4. Lack of division man hours | 40 |
| 5. Other representatives sent | 9 |
| 6. Combination of reasons: | |
| Lack of Office of Education funds plus one other reason | 24 |
| Conflict in specialist's schedule plus one other reason | 19 |
| Total | 268 |

# *Appendix C.* LETTER ADDRESSED TO PRESIDENTS OF FORTY REPRESENTATIVE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OF THE COUNTRY

7 May 1948

Dear :

The Commission on the Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government headed by former-President Herbert Hoover has contracted with the Brookings Institution for basic studies in several areas, including Education for which I am responsible.

It is my firm belief that one of the major criteria for evaluating federal organization and activities involving higher education must be in terms of the effect and impact on the higher institutions of this country. With this in mind, I hope that you will be willing to give me certain information and reactions regarding federally supported activities operating in your institution, as follows:

(*a*) Federal activities, other than contract research, by name (such as ROTC, agricultural extension, etc.), federal contributions in support of each activity, and whether or not ("yes" or "no") this affects your regular instructional or campus program;

(*b*) Contract research activities summarized by general nature (such as medical, electronic, aeronautical, etc.) giving for each classification the number of contracts, the total of federal funds, and whether or not ("yes" or "no") this affects your regular instructional or campus program;

(*c*) The number of separate federal agencies with which you deal in connection with the activities of (*a*) and (*b*) above;

(*d*) Your reactions relative to any of the *individual* activities indicated above as you consider them to be advantageous or detrimental to your program concerning such matters as improvement of your staff, federal controls, variability in federal policy, or federal organization;

(*e*) Your reactions regarding the total effect of federal activities *collectively* in your institution in terms of such matters as curricular balance, professional improvement of staff, impact on students, etc.;

(*f*) Any suggestions or reactions you may have relative to the improvement of federal relations, federal organization, need of co-ordination on the federal level, etc.

If you find it completely impossible to present evidence or approximations in accordance with the above schedule, I hope at least that you will be willing to offer any evidence or opinion you may have relative to the long-range social and educational significance of federal activities as they have an impact on higher education.

As this letter is being sent only to a very few selected college and university presidents in order to obtain a limited sampling reaction, I hope that you will realize the importance of a reply.

Since I am working against a deadline, I trust that I may hear from you by May 25th as I will find it extremely difficult to incorporate materials in the report after that date. If you desire that any portions of your reply remain confidential, please so indicate.

Sincerely yours,
Hollis P. Allen
Specialist in Education
The Brookings Institution

## *Appendix D.* ESTIMATED SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS, 1948–49

(Quoted from Associated Press release, Washington *Star*, August 23, 1948)

### STUDENT ENROLLMENTS OF RECORD 32 MILLION DUE DESPITE GI DROP

By the Associated Press

School and college enrollment will soar to a new record of nearly 32,000,000 this fall, despite another drop in the number of veterans on campus.

The Office of Education, reporting this today, said grammar schools will enroll 22,797,000 students, high schools 6,270,000 and colleges 2,500,000.

All of the increase, estimated at 760,000, will occur in the grammar and high schools.

Ex-GIs, who represented 53 per cent of the college enrollment two years ago and 48 per cent last year, are expected to account for only 45 per cent this year. Nonveterans, however, will take the places of the 100,000 or so veterans leaving school.

By the 1956–7 school year the enrollment flood is expected to rise another 7,000,000.

The enrollment increase in the years just ahead is attributed to the Nation's soaring birth rate during and since the war.

Government specialists said:

The draft law will have little effect on college enrollments this year. War veterans in colleges will decline 100,000 to a total of 1,000,000. There will be fewer substandard teachers this year, but the shortage of instructors will become increasingly acute in grammar schools.

The space shortage will be the "worst of any time in American history." School building programs are not keeping pace.

Elementary schools will be hardest hit for space and teaching talent.

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